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Gen. Pickett taking the order to charge from Gen. Longstreet, Gettysburg, July 3, 1863.

THE HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF .... AMERICA TO THE PRESENT TIME

INCLUDING A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION, COPIOUS ANNOTATIONS, A LIST OF AUTHORITIES AND REFERENCES, ETC.

PROFUSELY AND BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED. MAPS, CHARTS, PORTRAITS, FAMOUS HISTORIC SCENES AND EVENTS, AND A SERIES OF BEAUTIFUL POLYCHROMATIC PLATES

By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "THE ECLECTIC PRIMARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," ETC.

ILLUSTRATORS

C. M. Relyea, H. A. Ogden, J. Steeple Davis, Warren Sheppard, W. H. Lippincott, A. B. Doggett, De Cost Smith, W. P. Snyder, Gilbert Gaul, W. C. Fitler, C. Kendrick, Joseph Gleeson, and others.

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CHAPTER CVII

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*)

THE WORK OF HUMANITY AND THE LEADERS OF THE WAR

[*Authorities:* It is a relief to turn from the record of suffering, war, and death to that of the blessed ministrations of those who are always quick to put forth their utmost efforts to lessen these evils. The beneficent work of woman shines as always in radiant contrast to the misery caused by the wrath of man.

No theme, perhaps, is more interesting than the personality of those who helped to make history during the important and stirring episodes of our national existence. With this fact in mind, biographical sketches are given of the prominent leaders of our land and naval forces, the authorities for all the statements being the most reliable data at command of the author.]

MERCY and its blessed works always follow on the heels of cruelty, suffering, and war. The American National Red Cross, incorporated under the laws of the United States for the District of Columbia, is the only legitimate and recognized local branch in this country of the great international association, which is accepted by twelve of the leading Powers of the world, and in which the International Committee of Berne is the head. Its merciful work is accomplished through the express neutralization of its individual workers by the military and naval authorities, and the issuance to them of the stipulated armlet bearing the sign of the Red Cross. Besides its individual agents in the field, the society is always ready to co-operate in the equipment and supply of ambulances and medical stores, drawing for its resources on the benevolence of the community, and systematizing effort and aid throughout the country by

The Red Cross Society

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the various local committees which it has organized. Our Government, in the latter part of May, 1898, recognized the American National Red Cross as the Civil Central American Committee in correspondence with the International Committee for the relief of the wounded in war.

The way being thus opened for the women of the country to aid in the work of mercy, their labors began at once and were pushed without lagging to the close of the war. Thousands of dollars were gathered from all parts of the country, every possible provision was made for the sufferers, and many more lives would have been saved but for gross mismanagement in the War Department.

Clara Barton

Clara Barton, whose beneficent work in India, in Armenia, at Johnstown, and in many other places where men, women, and children were stricken has made her name blessed throughout the world, is a woman who, though she has reached the age of threescore and ten, is as active and keenly alert as one of half her years, and she was called back from the Old World to take charge of that which awaited her in the New. She is at the head of the Red Cross organization in this country, and was engaged, with her amazing clearness of judgment and business skill, in administering to the relief of the perishing reconcentrados in Cuba, when it became necessary for her to turn her attention to the sick and wounded of the contending forces. The Red Cross ship *State of Texas*, three days after the landing of troops began in Cuba, steamed in among the ships of Admiral Sampson's fleet off Santiago harbor. Miss Barton, through George Kennan, Vice-President of the Red Cross, communicated with Admiral Sampson, Mr. Kennan boarding the flagship, bearing Clara Barton's compliments and reporting the arrival of the *State of Texas*.

Since no landing of supplies could be made at Santiago until the American forces were in possession, the admiral advised the Red Cross ship to go to the good harbor of Guantanamo Bay, forty miles farther east, where Commander McCalla would be able to open communication with the Cubans and land supplies for the refugees. Great courtesy was shown to the Red Cross people there as elsewhere, and Commander McCalla asked that the *State of Texas* might be anchored near the *Marblehead*, placed his steam launch at the disposal of Clara Barton and her staff, and put himself wholly at their service.

Word coming that the Red Cross help was needed at Siboney, one of the two points at which troops had been landed, the steamer hurried thither, where there were two hospitals, Cuban and Ameri-

RED CROSS WORKERS—CLARA BARTON, HEAD OF THE RED CROSS SOCIETY

can. Assistance was given in the most intelligent manner, and was received with fervent gratitude.

The work thus opened was carried through, as has been stated, to

the end, often in the face of opposition from the surgeon-general of our army, but without faltering or failing. Regarding the work at Siboney, Miss Jeanette Jennings, who did admirable service among the sick and wounded, gave the following account:

"The *State of Texas*, with 1,100 tons of provisions and supplies, left for Santiago three days after the troops started. We went to several places without making any arrangements for a landing, and were finally advised by Admiral Sampson to go to Guantanamo. While there a newspaper correspondent came aboard the *Texas*, and told Miss Barton that the hospital at Siboney was greatly in need of supplies. Miss Barton immediately ordered the *Texas* to proceed to Siboney, and when we arrived there a number of our people were sent ashore to investigate the story of the hospital's needs. They returned and told us that the hospital needed everything from food and medicines to cots and bedclothing.

RED CROSS WORKERS—MRS. J. ADDISON PORTER

"Of course we had all of these things on board the *Texas*, and at Miss Barton's order we got up a number of cots and prepared to take them ashore. It was very rough at the time, and it was found impossible to land the cots in the small boats of the *Texas*, so five of the Red Cross sisters went ashore with two soldiers and a quantity of supplies to do what they could to improve the condition of the men in the hospital.

"They found the hospital located in a rickety old building, and perfectly filthy. Seventy men were lying on the floor with their

clothing on. There wasn't a bed in the place, and the condition of the men was awful. Some were ill with fever, others with dysentery, and others with measles. There were two wounded men of the Rough Riders there, too. They had been shot in the fight at Las Guasimas, and were in a bad way. Some of these men had been lying on this filthy, bare floor for four days.

RED CROSS WORKERS—SISTER BETTINA

"The sisters offered their services at once, together with those of a surgeon. They wanted to go to work and clean out the place and make the men comfortable. It happened that the assistant-surgeon, a Dr. Winter, was in charge at the time. He told the sisters that their services were not needed, and declined their offer of help, although he did say that assistance might be acceptable in a few days. The sisters begged to be allowed to stay, saying that even if their services were not needed there could be no objection to their cleaning out the hospital, giving the sick and wounded clean sheets and proper food; but again the assistant-surgeon declined the offer, and at that time seventy American soldiers were lying sick on the floor, with no food but the regular army rations.

Helping the Cubans

"The doctor finally consented to allow the sisters to leave some supplies, which they did. Their services having been rejected by the American surgeon, the sisters passed on to the Cuban hospital. There they found about the same conditions prevailing, excepting that the Cubans had a few beds. The same offer of assistance was

made, and the Cubans grasped at it. They were only too glad to get help.

"The sisters went right to work with soap and water, and scrubbed the walls, floors, and woodwork of every room in that Cuban hospital. They brought clean clothes and clean bedding, prepared food such as sick people should have, and in a very short time transformed the place into a decent and comfortable hospital. They did the work of servants and nurses, and did it cheerfully. And there never was a more delighted lot of people than these Cubans over what had been done for them.

RED CROSS WORKERS—DR. A. M. LESSER

"In the afternoon I went ashore myself, and hearing that the sisters were at the Cuban hospital, went there. When I saw what had been done for the Cubans I asked whether anything had been done for the Americans. The sisters told me about stopping at the American hospital first, and of their reception there. I went to the American hospital at once and visited every room in it. I found the conditions just what the sisters had told me I would.

"There was a hospital steward in charge at the time. He told me that he had two men to help him to care for the sick and wounded, but that he had absolutely nothing to make them comfortable. He was very much distressed over the situation, but said he was helpless. While I was talking to him, Dr. Havard, who was, I believe, the chief surgeon of the hospital, came in. I told him of the terrible condition of our men.

RED CROSS WORKERS—MISS MARGARET LONG

"'You declined the services of the Red Cross to-day,' I said. 'Can you afford to let it go back to the United States that you have absolutely nothing here in the way of supplies or nurses for our stricken men, and yet reject the help that is at hand and is offered to you?'

"He said he had not declined our help, but would only be too glad to get it. Our subsequent conversation brought out the fact that it was the assistant-surgeon, and not he, who refused the offer of the sisters.

"'Well,' I said, 'are you ready now to let our nurses come and do for the Americans what they have spent the day in doing for the Cubans?'

"'Yes, I am,' he said. My first thought then was how to land our cots. I wanted to get these men off the floor. I went to Inspector-General Breckinridge and to Colonel Humphrey of General Shafter's staff, but they didn't seem to know any way to help me. So I finally went back to the *Texas* and reported to Miss Barton. The next morning, at daybreak, our own men landed the cots in small boats. We found a new and cleaner building for the hospital, fitted it up with the cots, and many other comparatively un-

GEN. J. C. BRECKINRIDGE, U. S. A.

known comforts there, raised our flag over it, and from then on did all we could for the comfort of the unfortunates, at the same time keeping up our work in the Cuban hospital.

"The attack on Santiago began on the morning of July 1st. In the afternoon the wounded began to come back, some in army wagons, some on stretchers, and some on foot. We fitted up hospitals in the tents that had been abandoned by the soldiers moving to the front, covering the ground inside with straw. Six of these tents were fitted up as operating-rooms, and, at the invitation of Dr. Lagarde, Dr. Lesser of the Red Cross aided in the surgical work. In twenty-four hours the surgeons operated on and dressed the wounds of 475 men.

HOSPITAL SHIP "RELIEF"

The nurses worked on as steadily as the surgeons, without thinking of sleep, and only stopping occasionally to take a cup of coffee, for it was trying work.

"The next afternoon I was at work in the Red Cross hospital when Dr. Lagarde rushed in and said:

"'Can anybody get out to the *State of Texas* at once? I have here an order from General Shafter authorizing Miss Barton to seize

any army wagons she can find and send them to the front with supplies for the wounded there.'

"'Where are the hospital supplies of the army?' I asked. 'Where is the hospital service? Have you brought twenty thousand men

WOMEN NURSES OF THE HOSPITAL SHIP "RELIEF"

down here and sent them to fight without making any preparations for the care of the wounded?'

"He was very much distressed, and there were tears in his eyes.

"'I don't know,' he said, 'I don't know! God knows what we could have done here without the help of the Red Cross! Our only hope at the front now is in the Red Cross and the help it can give us!'

The Red Cross the Only Help

"Dr. Hubbel, a Red Cross surgeon, came in at this juncture, and we all went to the *Texas*. Supplies were brought up and men were sent ashore to get wagons. At daylight we landed the supplies, and

started off two wagon-loads. Miss Barton went ashore afterward and followed in a third wagon-load of supplies. The next day Dr. Hubbel, who had gone to the front, came back, and more supplies were sent. This sort of thing went on day after day, and in three days Miss Barton made three trips to the front. I never heard through it all of anything in the way of hospital supplies being taken from any of the transports. I made inquiries among officers on this point, but couldn't find any who had heard of such a thing.

A Constant Need

"We found out soon after we got to work at Siboney that ice was badly needed in the hospitals. Miss Barton sent me over to Jamaica, on the *Texas*, to get some. I managed to buy two tons at Port Antonio and fifteen tons at Kingston, and that ice was still being used in the hospitals when I came away on July 14th.

"The wounded in the Santiago fights were taken care of as best we knew how, but much suffering resulted from the failure to have four division hospitals at the front. Where there should have been four there was only one, and that was why so many wounded had to come, over miles of new roads, to the rear for treatment.

"The Red Cross people all lived on the *State of Texas* until I took the steamer away for ice. Then they found lodgings with a Cuban family near by. When the ship returned, Dr. and Mrs. Lesser, Sister Minnie, and Mrs. White, wife of Trumbull White, the correspondent of the Chicago *Record*, who did invaluable work as a nurse, decided to stay ashore nights instead of returning each night to the *Texas*. They were taken ill shortly afterward, and Dr. Guiteras kept a careful watch over them. It was suspected that they were suffering from a mild form of yellow fever, but when I left they were getting along famously.

A Trying Experience

"As for the trip upon the *Seneca*, of course it was understood at the start that the transport was not a hospital ship. We all had to make the best of it, and everybody was as cheerful as could be under the circumstances. We might have got some supplies from the *State of Texas*, but the *Seneca* was ordered to sail at once and there was no time."

The correspondent of the New York *Sun*, writing from Siboney, under date of July 6th, gives the following picture of the heroism of the Red Cross workers among our wounded soldiers:

"These past six days seem like a blur. To write any connected account of them is out of the question for any one who has had any-

thing to do with caring for the wounded here. Late last night one of the ambulance wagons came rumbling into camp. Four or five comparative convalescents lay inside of it, and, sitting bolt upright and grasping one of the wagon-poles tightly, was Clara Barton, fast asleep, enjoying the first solid hour of rest she has had since the battle of Santiago began. The moment that trouble began at the front Miss Barton started for the field hospital. Mrs. Lesser and the other four nurses remained here, and have worked indefatigably

HOSPITAL CORPS OF THE "RELIEF"

under Major Lagarde and Dr. Lesser. The brunt of most of the hardest work has fallen on these young women. There is not one of them who has had more than six hours of sleep since the wounded began to come in on last Friday night, and that some of them have not already collapsed only goes to show what an amount of grit and endurance there is in young American womanhood. The heat in the tents, during the morning hours particularly, has been almost insufferable, and none of the men here except the doctors has been able to stand the strain of remaining in the operating-tent for more than six hours at a time: and yet for six days have these five noble women been working there for twenty-three hours out of each twenty-four. Last night two of the nurses looked so faint and exhausted that a

Noble Work by Young Women

couple of newspaper men asked leave of Major Lagarde to take their places beside the operating tables while they went to get something to eat. The duties in themselves were simple enough — to wash the patient and prepare him for the operation, and then to help hold him in position while the operation was going on. But the worst of the work came later, when the patient had been removed and the table had to be cleaned and made ready for the next occupant. There was never a moment to be lost about this, for in the adjoining tent, lying on the ground, there were always from thirty to forty poor fellows writhing in agony as they waited for their turn to come. Tied to the buttonhole of each man's coat was a red, white, and blue tag, on which was written the nature of his wound; and if it was a desperate case, on the back of the tag the field doctors had written 'Urgent.' It was by these tags that Major Lagarde was able to select his patients. Some of those who were suffering the most pain had the longest time to wait."

Urgency Cases

Justice demands that recognition should be given to the work of the Catholic church, which was among the foremost in ministering to the sick, the wounded, and the dying. Centuries ago, her priests braved the storm, the arctic cold, the smothering heat, thirst, and starvation in the depths of the American wilderness, where many unflinchingly suffered torture, martyrdom, and death at the hands of the fierce red men whom they sought to win from their savage ways. No danger, loathsome disease, or physical distress could chill the devotion of the gentle sisters in the war with Spain, where their work was but a repetition of that done in the Mexican and Civil Wars.

"I am a Protestant," said a tottering, husky-voiced veteran from Santiago, "and I never went much on the Catholics, but let a soldier be riddled with Mauser bullets as I was, and then turned into a flaming furnace of fever and made as crazy as a loon, yelling all the time for death to come to his relief; let him see one of those sweet, gentle faces bending over him and feel her cool hand on his blistering forehead; let her raise his head when he is too weak to raise it himself and hold the ice-water to his parched lips; give him medicine all through the long, dismal night hours, denying herself that he may have every delicacy, writing letters home for him, speaking hopeful, cheering words, and never once asking whether he is Catholic or Protestant, but thinking only of his comfort; I say let a grizzled old sinner like me go through such an experience, and if he doesn't say

Ministering Angels

those sisters are angels it is because he doesn't know an angel when he sees one."

On the day that war was declared, April 21st, the Sisters of Mercy in Baltimore telegraphed the offer of their services to the Government. The national authorities believed it impossible for women

TENDING THE WOUNDED ON THE FIELD

nurses to follow the army to the seat of war, and the Surgeon-General was obliged to reply that he had no authority for employing them. This authority, however, was soon after conferred upon him.

We quote from the *Ave Maria* of Notre Dame, Indiana (Sept. 23, 1899):

Climatic Dangers

"As the war progressed, it became evident that disease, especially fever, was more to be dreaded in Cuba than the bullets of the enemy. The dangers of the climate once realized, the efforts of the surgeons were directed to the speedy transportation of the wounded and of the

sick (who greatly exceeded them in numbers) back to the United States. The importance, therefore, of securing hospitals — and, especially during the summer season, of hospital camps — became urgent. For these, of course, female nurses were required; but the Government was unwilling to engage these individually or to employ any organizations without a system of contracts. At this juncture the Daughters of the American Revolution came forward and offered to undertake the work of examining, engaging, and transporting all the nurses required for hospital duty. With this object, Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee, one of the officers of the D. A. R. (who was afterward made an acting assistant-surgeon in the U. S. Army), aided by Miss Ella Loraine Dorsey, a former vice-president of the D. A. R., and by other members of this organization, agreed to engage the nurses needed.

GEO. M. STERNBERG, SURGEON-GENERAL, U. S. A.

"It is impossible to speak too highly of the work of these ladies, whose patriotism and ability enabled the Government to secure for its hospital service the best corps of nurses which has ever been provided in time of war. Ella Loraine Dorsey, a daughter of Mrs. Anna Hansom Dorsey, and a writer whose stories are known to all Catholic readers, undertook to supply the Catholic nursing sisters required,—

A Labor of Love

a task, or rather a labor of love, which could have been achieved only by her unselfish nature and remarkable ability. Through her alone 235 sisters were examined and transported to their respective destinations in time to bring comfort, material and spiritual, to the thousands of soldiers who were blessed by their tender ministrations

"Besides the Sisters of Charity, of Mercy, of St. Joseph, and of the Holy Cross, 4 of the Congregation of American Sisters (the only order of American Indians) contributed to the number. These, with 196 Sisters of Charity, 13 Sisters of Mercy, 11 Sisters of St. Joseph, and 11 Sisters of the Holy Cross, make up the 235 contract nurses already specified. There were 4 Sisters of Charity at the Norfolk Hospital, 10 Sisters of Charity at the Presidio Hospital, San Francisco, and one Sister of St. Joseph, who served without contract.

"The services of the Sisters of the Holy Names (an order better known in Canada and on the Pacific coast than in the East) were also enlisted when the military hospital at Key West was established. Finding that the quarters assigned to Major William R. Hall, the surgeon in charge, were inadequate, they gave up their beautiful convent for a hospital for the soldiers, and aided in nursing them. Major Hall is full of enthusiasm for the sisters and their work, which the present writer would gladly describe in detail were it not for the injunction of Sister Theophile, the superior, who is unwilling to have the labors of the individual sisters alluded to. At Tampa, the great railway terminus during the war, where there are other convents of the same order, the sisters devoted themselves to the care of the soldiers, who arrived, often after days of travel, tired and dusty and hungry. Over 3,000 meals were prepared, cooked, and served by these sisters for the soldiers, without a thought of compensation. 'While we had anything in the pantry,' writes Sister Theophile, 'the poor boys did not suffer.' The Sisters of the Holy Names also hospitably received the Sisters of Charity and others who were on their way to Cuba. These Sisters of Charity, who were engaged as 'immunes,' by the advice of General Wood and of the surgeon in charge, did not remain at Santiago, but returned on the transport with a large number of sick and wounded to Camp Wikoff, Montauk Point, after the establishment of that hospital camp on August 18th.

Roman Catholic Sisterhoods

"Four Sisters of Charity had already been applied for on July 17th, to nurse the American wounded and the Spanish prisoners at the Naval Hospital at Norfolk. These served without contract, and remained until the wounded were restored to health and the prisoners returned to Spain.

"The sisters at Montauk had charge of the Annex Hospital under Dr. Leonard Almy. This surgeon speaks most highly of the services of the sisters, who created, he says, a 'model hospital,' a statement

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which the personal experience of the present writer enables her, in many respects, to corroborate. In all, 111 sisters were employed there, remaining in varying numbers until the close of the camp, late in September.

"On August 10th, the Sisters of Charity were ordered to the hospital at Fort Thomas, Kentucky, where, under Major William R. Hall, already quoted, they did 'magnificent service,' nursing 2,500 men with a death rate of less than one-half of one per cent.

"On August 20th, 11 Sisters of Mercy, principally typhoid fever expert nurses, and 9 Sisters of Charity, were ordered to the Sanger-Hoff Hospital at Chickamauga, Ga. Here, amid surroundings of unspeakable squalor, the sisters managed to bring comfort and peace to the suffering soldiers. Certain hardships and privations were inseparable from the location of the camp. The bad water, the crowded wards, the swarms of flies, have become historic through the revelations of a certain board familiarly known as the 'Whitewashing Commission.' The surgeon in charge, Major Brechemin, has expressed to the writer his admiration for the noble work done by 'those glorious women, the sisters.' Fifty-five more Sisters of Charity joined them here, and remained until the close of the hospital camp, late in September; after which the sisters were ordered to the hospitals at Knoxville, Tenn.; Lexington, Ky.; Huntsville, Ala.; and Columbus, Ga. When these hospitals were closed in November, the sisters attached to the Seventh Army Corps went to Jacksonville and Savannah, and later to Matanzas, Cuba. The Sisters of the Holy Cross, whose services were no longer required, returned home; while the 11 Sisters of St. Joseph, who also went to Matanzas, are still there, and, according to very recent reports of the surgeon in charge, are doing admirable work. Four members of the Congregation of American Sisters repaired to Havana, after serving in the hospitals at Jacksonville and Savannah, where they were employed in the infected wards and in nursing contagious diseases.

Congregation of American Sisters

"This brave little band, at the outbreak of the war, offered their services to the Government, asking, in their official application to the War Department, 'to be sent at once to the front to follow up the line of battle and to take care of the wounded under fire, as our frontier experience has specially fitted us for this work.' This Congregation was founded at Fort Pierre, South Dakota, by Mother Catherine, Sacred White Buffalo, a full-blooded Sioux Indian. Mother

Catherine, a noble woman, devoted her life to civilizing her own people and bringing them to the faith. She died at the early age of twenty-six, after heroic exertions, and left behind her a little community of five sisters, who have continued the work,—teaching the children of the tribes, helping the destitute, and nursing the sick in their own rude houses and in the sisters' hospital."

The records of war contain no more heroic deed than that narrated by Major Frank Keck, of the Seventy-first New York Volunteers. "On July 2d," says he, "while the fighting was going on, I sent word to our chaplain to come to the front to officiate at the burial of comrades who had been killed in action. For some unexplained reason he failed to respond. A Catholic priest, the chaplain of one of the regiments of regulars in Lawton's division, volunteered his services, which were promptly and gratefully accepted. As he was reading the service a Spanish bullet struck his left hand, in which the book was held, shattering it horribly. Without a change of voice the book was dropped into the right hand and the services continued without a moment's halt. The mutilated and bleeding hand dropped to his side. Having finished the burial services, he asked if he could be of any further service. My answer was a detail to get him to the field hospital as quickly as possible and my sincere, heartfelt thanks."

A Heroic Priest

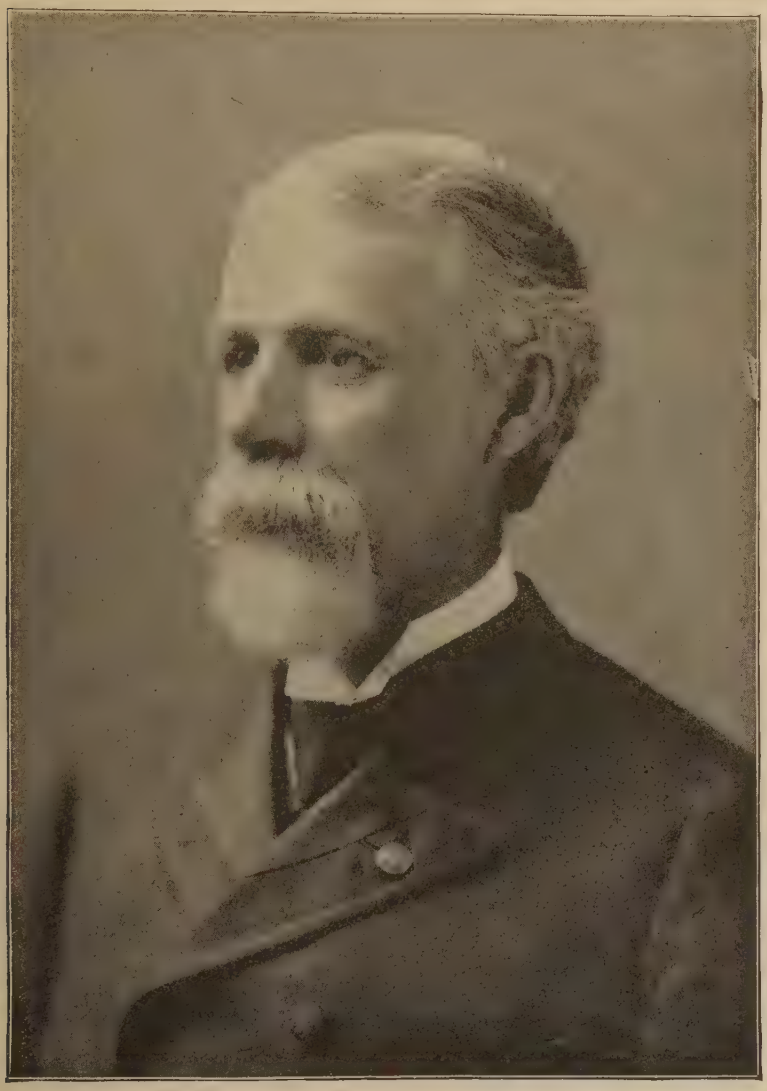
We might fill pages with the history of the work of these noble men and women, but we close with a quotation from an article in the *Christian Advocate*, the leading Methodist journal of the country, written by Rev. W. T. Helms, a Protestant chaplain in the Navy. Referring to the nurses at Key West, where he visited the Catholic hospitals, he says: "They were veritable angels of mercy in their ministrations to men who were in every degree of sickness and who were suffering from every sort of wound. And the men grew to love their sweet, smiling faces, and they wondered how human beings could tread so gently, and how human hands could so softly brush away the cares from their fevered brows. Then their hands were ever ready to write long letters to the homes that could not otherwise have heard from husbands, fathers, and sons whose arms were weakened and whose nerves were unsettled. And they never complained of weariness, though sometimes their faces spoke of overwork in a slightly intensified pallor that came from long vigils of watching that were frequently followed by additional hours of prayer. And they

never apparently were dissatisfied, claiming that the pleasure of helping others for Christ's sake was in itself its own recompense."

MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM R. SHAFTER, U. S. A.

Major-General William R. Shafter was a farmer's boy, and was working on a farm in Michigan when the Civil War broke out. He

was about twenty-five years old, and, full of patriotism, entered the Seventh Michigan Infantry as first lieutenant shortly after the open-



GENERAL RUSSELL A. ALGER, EX-SECRETARY OF WAR

ing of hostilities. He soon made his mark, and gave promise of attaining high rank if life was spared and opportunity given. He was promoted to major of the Nineteenth Michigan Infantry, lieutenant-

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colonel and colonel in the United States Infantry, and, in March, 1865, was brevetted brigadier-general. It was his meritorious service on the battlefield of Fair Oaks, Va., that won him his brevet as colonel and a medal of honor.

General Shafter served with distinction, after the war, in the Indian campaigns of Texas, New Mexico, and along the Rio Grande, as lieutenant-colonel of the Twenty-fourth Infantry. His commission as colonel of the First Infantry was vacated May 4, 1897, when he was placed in command of the Department of California, with headquarters at San Francisco. The friendship of his old comrade, ex-Secretary of War Alger, had much to do with General Shafter's selection as leader of the Cuban campaign, and there were many criticisms of his appointment to the responsible office, as there were afterward of his conduct of the campaign; but the bravery, patriotism, and ability of the leader cannot be questioned, though these qualities will never place him in the front rank of military leaders.

General Shafter's Record

General Shafter has passed through the roughest of experiences, including as they do his services in the Civil War, in Indian warfare on the plains, and in the enervating climate of Cuba. More than once he was stricken down, like so many of his brother officers, but not long after his return to this country he fully regained his rugged health and strength and was ready for active service. He has blue eyes under heavy shaggy brows, a commandingly Roman nose, and underneath his stern expression linger a quaint humor and kindness of heart that have won him the good will and friendship of many an associate, as well as the respect of those who served under him in the ranks. On October 3, 1898, he assumed command of the Department of the East during the absence of General Merritt.

In other portions of this work we have given biographical sketches of General Nelson A. Miles, commanding the United States army, and of General Fitzhugh Lee, who at the beginning of the war with Spain was placed in command of the Seventh Corps at Tampa. It was a cause of keen regret to General Lee that he had no opportunity to return to Cuba as a military leader. His faith in his men was unbounded, and he insisted that his corps was the best in the army. The rank and file respected him, and shared his disappointment at being compelled to lie idle while fighting was going on so near at hand.

General Merritt

Major-General Wesley Merritt is probably the ablest military officer who at this writing is in the service of his country. He was born in

New York city, December 1, 1836, and was one of eight brothers. While a small child, his father removed to a farm in Illinois, near St.

MAJOR-GENERAL WESLEY MERRITT, U. S. A.

Louis. The youth worked on the farm and helped his father to run a weekly newspaper. He began the study of law when he received an appointment to a cadetship at West Point, from which he was gradu-

ated with a fair standing in 1860. He joined the dragoons and continued with the cavalry until the end of the Civil War.

A record of General Merritt's fine services would require many pages of this work. He commanded a division of cavalry under Sheridan in Virginia in 1864 and 1865, and had the immediate command, as Sheridan's chief of cavalry, of the whole corps of ten thousand sabres which made the famous raid up the Shenandoah Valley in the early part of 1865. Brevets won at Gettysburg, Yellow Tavern, Hawes' Shop, Winchester and Fisher's Hill, Five Forks, and Appomattox are proofs of his splendid work.

A Remarkable Escape

So daring a fighter was often in great personal peril, and some of his escapes from death were remarkable. At Beverly Ford in 1863, he was attacked by a Confederate officer and a furious hand-to-hand fight followed, in the course of which Merritt received a terrific sabre blow over the head that would have split his skull but for the big army handkerchief in the crown of his soft felt hat. By the most determined fighting he and his command turned an impending defeat into victory. That superb soldier, Buford, was so impressed by Merritt's work that he insisted upon and secured his promotion to a brigadier-generalship.

General Merritt reached his colonelcy in the regular army, that of the Fifth Cavalry, in 1876. From September 1, 1882, to June 30, 1887, he was superintendent of the Military Academy at West Point. He was made a brigadier-general in April, 1887, and afterward commanded the departments of the Missouri and Dakota. In 1897 he became a major-general and assumed command of the Department of the East, succeeding General Thomas H. Ruger. In May, 1898, he was appointed military commander and governor of the Philippines. In the scant opportunity afforded, he added to his brilliant reputation. The date of General Merritt's retirement from active service is June 16, 1900.

"Fighting Joe" Wheeler

Congressman Wheeler, of Alabama, has well earned the name of "Fighting Joe." He belongs to a military family. His son, Joe Wheeler, Jr., was instructor of mathematics at West Point at the breaking out of the war with Spain, but secured a furlough until September and received an appointment on his father's staff, where he proved that he was made of the right stuff. Thomas Wheeler, another son, was only seventeen, and a student at Annapolis. He succeeded in securing a furlough until October, and offered his

MAJOR-GENERAL JOSEPH WHEELER, U. S. V

services to the Secretary of the Navy, who appointed him naval cadet on the *Columbia.** Miss Anne Wheeler, the idol of her father, told him she had set her heart on going to Cuba as a nurse. "If it is your wish," he replied, "you shall go." She was with him at Tampa, and lost no time in entering the service of the Red Cross.

At the breaking out of the Civil War, General Wheeler, who was a graduate of West Point, twenty-four years old, and a second lieutenant in the Fifth Dragoons, resigned his commission in order to serve the Confederacy. Shortly afterward he was commissioned colonel in an Alabama infantry regiment. He greatly distinguished himself at Shiloh, and in a gallant charge had two horses shot under him. Since the general never weighed much more than a hundred pounds, it is easy to understand how it came about that in the course of the war he had sixteen horses killed and a number wounded, for the animal was always a much more conspicuous target than himself.

A Man of Action

"Fighting Joe" was always in the thickest of the fight, even after he rose to the command of a division and a corps. An appointment on his staff was no empty honor, for no less than thirty-two of his staff officers were killed or wounded while fighting at his side. He himself was wounded three times, but not seriously. In an engagement near Nashville, Tenn., in 1862, his horse was torn to pieces by an exploding shell, his aide was killed, and he was painfully wounded, but he secured another horse and aide-de-camp and fought fiercely to the close of the battle.

General Wheeler was serving his ninth term as Congressman from Alabama when he resigned to go to war. His fine record destroyed all opposition to his triumphant re-election in the autumn of 1898.

A correspondent of the Chicago *Times-Herald* gives the following account of the remarkable officer, General Henry W. Lawton:

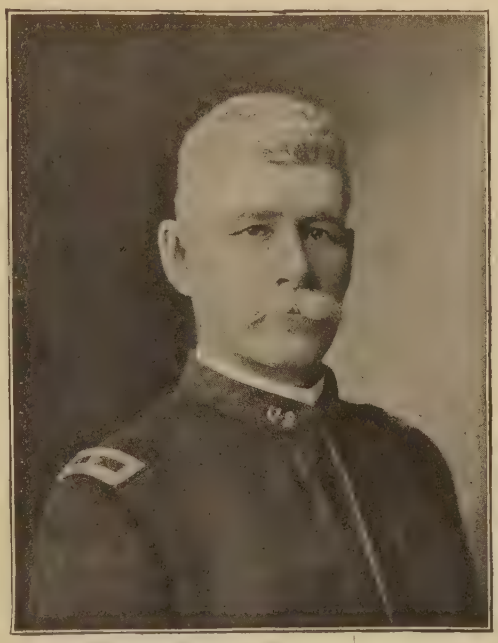
General Lawton

"The papers have told of his long years of service, of how he has worked himself up through the lieutenancies to his present rank, and of the training given him of more than a quarter of a century of experience; but of the gigantic size, the phenomenal strength and activity, the abnormal endurance, the utter fearlessness, and the inalienable picturesqueness of the man not a word. I have the honor

*Cadet Thomas Wheeler was accidentally drowned on Sept. 7, 1898, while bathing near Camp Wikoff, Montauk, L. I. Profound sympathy was felt for his father, who was in command of the camp, and was heartbroken by his affliction.

to know him well, and, since I like men whose basic manhood has not been utterly refined out of them, I like him.

"Lawton reminds me always of Scott's Norman baron, Front de Bœuf. He has better morals, of course, as well as a very pretty taste in red wines and reed-birds, but he is as big as the giant slain by Richard of the Lion Heart, is as direct in his methods, and, in personal or general combat, every bit as savage. There is plenty of the primal man in him. What he thinks he says. He has a strong sense of justice, but his temper is terrific and he is not gentle. He requires of subordinates the utmost endeavor, and gets it. He asks no one to do work that he is not competent and willing to do himself. Naturally a leader, he goes first, and the more difficult or desperate the undertaking the faster he goes. Under the gray granite slab which covers the mouldering bones of a Confederate officer who sleeps on the magnolia-petalled uplands of Louisiana is an inscription: 'He never told his men to go on.' That will do for Lawton when he dies.



GEN. HENRY W. LAWTON, U. S. A.

Strength and Endurance

"He is six feet three inches high. He weighs two hundred and ten pounds, and nearly every ounce of it is bone and blood and tendon and muscle. He is fifty-five years old and as springy as a youth. His capacity to go without food, drink, or sleep is seemingly unlimited. 'Macumazahn,' the Zulus called Quatermain,—'the one who has his eyes open.' Macumazahn Lawton will keep them open for a week at a stretch when necessary, and then walk, talk, eat, drink, or fight a dozen men to a standstill. He has lived a life of peril and hardship. His only rule of hygiene is a tub in the

morning. He has taken no sort of care of himself. Yet so splendidly was he endowed by nature that there is no perceptible weakening of his forces. Apparently he is as powerful and enduring as when I saw him first. That was more than ten years ago. He had completed one of the most remarkable feats of strength and perseverance chronicled in the long annals of the Anglo-Saxon race, but he was as fresh as a rose in the morning.

As an Indian Fighter

"He stood on the Government reservation at San Antonio surrounded by the tawny savage band of Chiricahua Apaches whom he had hunted off their feet. Near him, taciturn but of kindly visage, stood young Chief Naches, almost as tall as he. In a tent close by lay Geronimo, the medicine man, groaning from a surplusage of fresh beef eaten raw. The squat figures of the hereditary enemies of the whites grouped about him came only to his shoulder. He towered among them, stern, powerful, dominant — an incarnation of the spirit of the white man whose war drum has beat around the world. Clad in a faded, dirty fatigue jacket, greasy flannel shirt of gray, trousers so soiled that the stripe down the leg was barely visible, broken boots, and a disreputable sombrero that shaded the harsh features burned almost to blackness, he was every inch a soldier and a man. To the other officers at the post the Indians paid no sort of attention. To them General Stanley and his staff were so many well-dressed lay figures, standing about as part of a picture done for their amusement; but the huge, massive man with the stubble on his chin had shown them that he was their superior on hunting-grounds that were theirs by birthright, and they hung upon his lightest word.

A Wonderful Exploit

"For the tenth time Geronimo's band had jumped the San Carlos reservation. The spring grass was two inches high, and the Indian lust for blood was awake. As usual, troops were started upon a perilous chase. For days they followed the trail over a country that God Almighty made in wrath. Further and further into the vast solitudes they toiled. Volcanic crests reared about them. Lava tore the leather from their feet. They drank from springs that gushed thousands of feet above the valleys. They wandered in cañons so deep and dark that through the narrow ribbon of white far above them the stars were seen at midday. They lived upon animals no wilder than the men they were pursuing, and scarcely more wild than they. Now and then, from a forest of pines far above them, a shred of blue smoke drifted on the furnace air, followed by the shrill

of the bullet's wild singing. The horses long since had been left behind. The cavalrymen were on foot with Lawton at their head, his teeth hard set. 'We'll walk them down,' he told his sergeant when the mountains were reached. He was walking them down.

"Six weeks afterward an Indian, whose bones seemed ready to start through his skin, came to the camp and said that Geronimo was ready to surrender. Lawton went alone to the lair of the starving wolves and received their submission. Cavernous eyes glared at him. Lips black from thirst and hunger were drawn back over discolored teeth. Skeleton fingers pointed at him. From skeleton jaws came sounds of pleadings mixed with wrath. The poison of bitter racial hatred was in every glance. 'Even the rocks smelled like mad Indian,' he told me with a laugh long afterward. He lounged among them, their master by virtue of superior courage and strength and hardihood, and they followed him like sheep to food and imprisonment. That is the story in outline of the capture of Geronimo, physician, wizard, conjurer, orator, and murderer.

GEN. DANIEL W. FLAGLER, CHIEF OF ORDNANCE, U. S. A.

"The man of El Caney is the man of the Mogollons, and the man of the Mogollons is the reincarnation of some shining, helmeted giant warrior who fell upon the sands of Palestine in the first crusade, with the red blood welling over his corselet and his two-handed battle-sword shivered to the hilt. The race-type persists unchanged in eye, in profile, in figure. It is the race which in all the centuries the Valkyrs have wafted from the war-decks, have hailed from the holmgangs or helmet-strewn moorlands — the white-skinned race, which, drunk with the liquor of battle, reeled around the dragon standard at Senlac, which fought with Richard Grenville, which

The Anglo-Saxon Race

broke the Old Guard at Waterloo, which rode up the slope at Balaklava, which went down with the *Cumberland* at Hampton Roads, which charged with Pickett at Gettysburg — the race of the trader, the financier, the statesman, the inventor, the colonizer, the creator, but, before all, the fighter."

Civil War Record

General Lawton was born in Ohio in 1843, and, when the Civil War broke out, was working on a farm near the Indiana border. He enlisted April 18, 1861, and was chosen first sergeant of Company E of the Ninth Indiana. The regiment, being "three-months" men, was called to Western Virginia, where it saw considerable service and was mustered out July 29. Brief as was Lawton's experience, his ability and bravery attracted attention, and in the following month the Governor commissioned him as first lieutenant of the Thirtieth Indiana. On October 11 this regiment crossed the Ohio on its way to the front, joining what was then called the Army of the Ohio, gathering about Camp Nelson, Kentucky.

From the first this herculean hero always led his men in battle or wherever danger threatened. His regiment was in continual service, and when it fought its last engagement as a regiment at Nashville, Lawton had become a captain. At Shiloh the regiment had 18 killed and 109 wounded, the colonel being one of those who died from his wounds. At Stone River, where Lawton was in the hottest fighting, his regiment had 29 killed and more than a hundred wounded. He again displayed his intrepidity at Chickamauga, and under General George H. Thomas took part in more than twenty battles. Congress gave him a medal for distinguished gallantry in leading a charge of skirmishers against the Confederate rifle pits, capturing them and their occupants and repelling two determined attempts to retake the pits. This was when Lawton was serving as captain in front of Atlanta, August 3, 1864.

His fine record won him a commission as lieutenant-colonel of volunteers, February 10, 1865, and on March 13 he was brevetted colonel for gallant and meritorious services during the war. On the coming of peace he managed to contain himself as a civilian for about eight months, when he re-entered the service as first lieutenant of the Forty-first Infantry, passing to the Twenty-fourth Infantry two years later, where he remained until January 1, 1871, when he joined the Fourth United States Cavalry. He reached the rank of Captain in the regular army, March 20, 1879. His crowning work

DEATH OF GENERAL LAWTON

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1898

in Arizona has already been referred to. He well earned his promotion on the staff to major and assistant inspector-general, raised February 12, 1889, to a lieutenant-colonelcy.

As a brigadier-general of volunteers in the war with Spain, Shafter gave him the command of a division in the new Fifth Corps. He was conspicuous from the beginning, especially in the battle of Las

In Cuba

Guasimas. He commanded the column of attack at El Caney, and history has told of his superb work in Cuba, which being completed, he naturally gravitated to the Philippines, where he conducted a hurricane campaign, scattering the insurgents wherever encountered and clearing the rivers, mountains, and passes of them, through all manner of hardship, suffering, and dangers.

In the Philippines

On his return from the north he left Manila for San Mateo. The night march of fifteen miles was through the roughest country conceivable and amid one of the most furious of storms. At daylight, December 18, 1899, he came upon the enemy, 500 strong, intrenched and protected by a small river in front. Our troops formed and advanced to within three or four hundred yards, and Lawton and his staff rode forward to reconnoitre. His great height and massive form made him a tempting target for the Filipinos, and he was always contemptuous of danger, refusing to avail himself of shelter where other brave men were quick to adopt that precaution. His officers begged him to be careful, but he replied:

"I must see what is going on in the firing line."

He had ridden hardly twenty paces when he met two of his aides returning. Before they could report, they saw him start, clinch his hands, and turn pale.

"Are you hurt?" anxiously asked one of them.

Death and Funeral

"Yes; I am shot through the lungs," he replied, as he fell forward, with the blood pouring from his mouth, dying a few minutes later, without speaking again.

The death of General Lawton was mourned throughout the country and especially by his former comrades, who were deeply attached to him. The body reached Washington from San Francisco on the morning of February 8, 1900, and was escorted to the Church of the Covenant by Troop H of the Third Cavalry. It lay in state until the following day, when it was interred with military honors in Arlington National Cemetery. Among the many distinguished mourners,

who gathered to pay their last tribute to the dead hero were President McKinley and the members of his Cabinet.

When it became known that General Lawton died a poor man, leaving a widow and four children practically penniless, there was

COL. THEODORE ROOSEVELT, U. S. V. (AS A ROUGH RIDER)

a spontaneous expression of sympathy, which took the practical form of a popular subscription to a fund that should secure his family from want. This testimonial soon reached the handsome sum of nearly one hundred thousand dollars, and thus secured the commendable object the donors sought.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1898

The Rough Riders and their leader occupied a unique place in our war with Spain. Dr. Leonard Wood was the first colonel of the regiment. His gallantry at San Juan won him the promotion to a brigader-generalship and Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt became his successor as commander of the First Volunteer Cavalry, more popularly known as the Rough Riders.

Colonel Leonard Wood

He was born in New York, October 29, 1858, and was graduated from Harvard College, where he became famous as an athlete, in 1880. He was elected to the New York Assembly in 1882, and served at Albany until 1884. He was the leader of the Republican minority and his party's candidate for Speaker. His ability and honesty were conceded by his political opponents. In the three-cornered contest for the mayoralty of New York city in 1886, in which ex-Mayor Hewitt, Henry George and Mr. Roosevelt were the candidates, he polled a larger number of votes in proportion to the number cast than was ever before given to any Republican candidate for the office.

Theodore Roosevelt

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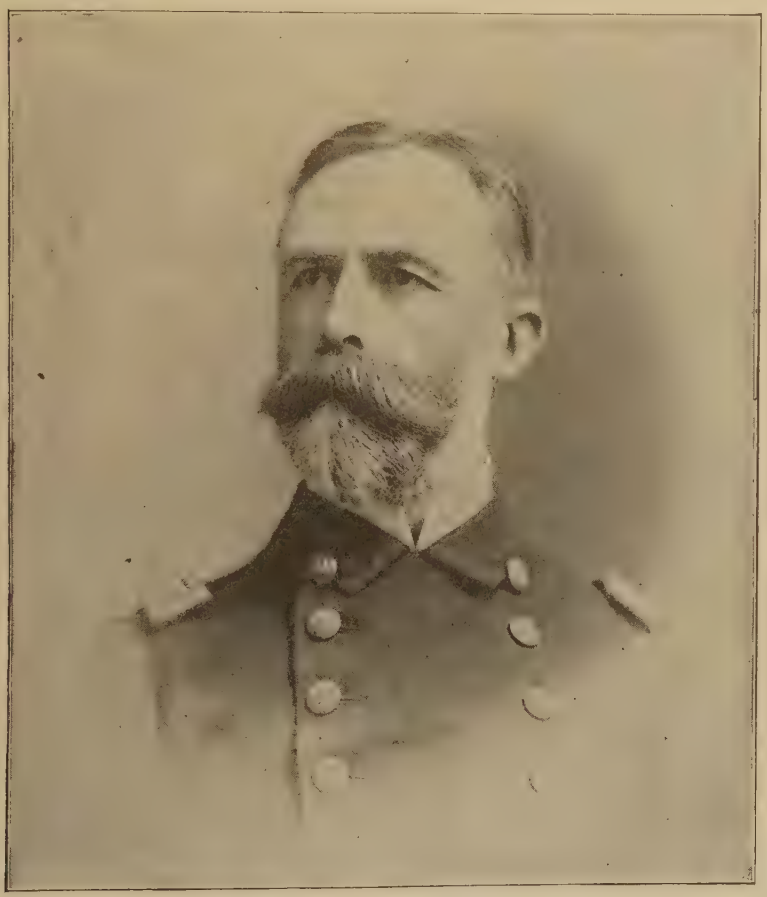
HON. THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Police Commissioner

When Benjamin Harrison became President he appointed Mr. Roosevelt a National Civil Service Commissioner, and President Cleveland, having learned his worth, was glad to retain him in that important office. He resigned in order to accept the presidency of

the New York Police Commission under the reform administration of Mayor Strong. His work in that office attracted the attention of the whole country. He enforced the laws with absolute fearlessness, brought order out of chaos, and won the respect of foes as well as friends.



REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM T. SAMPSON, U. S. N.

Assistant Secretary of the Navy

He resigned the office at the request of President McKinley, in order to become Assistant Secretary of the Navy. In his new field he displayed his usual energy and zeal, and no clerk in Washington worked as hard as he. He foresaw what was coming, and as president of the Strategic Board was tireless in making preparations.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1898

His services indeed were so valuable that when war came there was a general insistence that he should retain his office, but he would not listen to the counsel. He had had military experience as a captain in the Eighth Regiment of the National Guard of New York, and he set about organizing the Rough Riders, requesting that Dr. Wood should be the colonel, while he served as second in command. The storming of the heights of San Juan on the first of July was the most desperate battle of the war. Roosevelt set an inspiring example to his followers, who dashed after him with a daring that swept everything from their front.

Mr. Roosevelt's popularity led to his nomination by the Republicans, on September 27, 1898, for the governorship of New York and his election by a plurality of 18,079 votes. His administration as chief executive of the leading State in the Union met the high expectations of his friends and admirers.

One of the favorite descriptive words of Mr. Roosevelt is "strenuous," and its use by him has given the word a unique popularity. We continually meet it in editorials, in essays, in novels and even among the pages of dry statistics. It is often heard in debates on the floor of Congress, at meetings of scientists, in political conventions, in evangelical conferences and in the prayers of clergymen. No individual ever illustrated more strikingly in himself the "strenuous life," than the author of the phrase. He is impulsive, physically and mentally active, restless, fond of athletics and outdoor sports and is as industrious and hard working at his desk, in studying the intricacies of legislation and in mastering the details of important public questions, as when galloping headlong across the country in the teeth of a blinding storm of sleet.

Added to these manly qualities and his fearless courage, Mr. Roosevelt has always exhibited a truthfulness, integrity and sense of justice that have never been questioned by his bitterest political opponents. No matter if an appointee to office had been a Rough Rider, who had won the regard of his commander on the battle field, the slightest act of dishonesty on his part forfeited forever the confidence of his former commander. Mr. Roosevelt has been compared to Andrew Jackson with the roughness worn off and polished, and it must be admitted that the comparison is not without force.

Admiral Sampson

At the breaking out of the war with Spain, Captain William T. Sampson was commander-in-chief of the North Atlantic naval station,

ATLANTIC
CARIBB
PUERT
Statute Mile
Kilometres
Rand, McNally & Co
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ISLANDS
WEST OF
PUERTO RICO
On Same Scale as Main Map.
MONA PASSAGE
DESECHEO ISLAND
MONITO ISLAND
Northwest Cape
North Cape
MONA I.
West Point
Isabella Anch.
Light
East Cape
Playa Pajaro
Caigo o no
Caigo Pt.
CARIBBEAN SEA
Longitude West from Greenwich.
AGUADILLA
Aguadilla Bay
AGUADILLA
ARECIBO
MAYAGUEZ
MAYAGUEZ
Mayaguez Bay
Guanagibo Pt.
Arenas Pt.
L. Joyuda
Pt. Varas
Pt. Boca-prieta
Pt. Guaniquilla
Pedernales
Boqueron B.
Pt. Melones
Aguila Pt.
PONCE
Pta. del Algarrobo
Algarrobo Reef
Mondongo Reef
Allert Bank
White Rock Lights
MAYAGUEZ BAY.
SCALE.
MAYAGUEZ
Pts. de Guanagibo
R. de Guanagibo
TO MAYAGUEZ
ARENAS CAY
RATONES I.

Greenwich.
66°
65° 30'
C O E A N
A N S E A
SAN JUAN
Pt. Salinas
Light
El Boqueron
Pt. Maria
Maldonado Pt.
Embarcadero de los Canoas
Varia Talegas Pt.
Mediana alta
Mediana baja
Yabucoa
Humacao
Fajardo
Ceiba
Naguabo
Piedras
Humacao
Yabucoa
Maunabo
Patillas
Arroyo
Guayama
Aguirre
Jobos
Manchete
Port Johns
Pt. Bonuelo
Pt. Figuera
Arroyo Bay
Guayama Bay
Pt. Viento
Patillas Bay
Jacaboa
Portuguez Pt.
Mala Pascua
Pt. Tuna
Naranjo Pt.
Yegua Pt.
Guallane Pt.
Candelero Pt.
Pt. Icacos
Buenavista
Arenas Pt.
Vaca Pt.
Sound Bay
Mosquito Bay
Port Ferro
Grand Port
Danes Bay
East Pt.
Pt. Negra
Pelican Cay
Red Rock
Light
Port Mula
CRAB ISLAND
MT. PIRATA
Pt. Puerca
Cabras I.
N. Cabras I.
Pineros I.
Machos
Port Medio Mundo
Pt. Figueroa
Ramos
Palominos
Obispo
Las Cabezas
Cordilleras Reef
Hermanos Rocks
Hermanos Passage
Barriles Passage
Barriles Reef
The Washer
Flamingo Bay
Surf Bay
CULEBRA I.
N. E. Cay
Palma Cays
Culebrita I.
Light
Cross Cay
S. W. Cay
Soldier Pt.
Ensenada Honda
Bahia Honda
Port Mula
Algodon Bay
Pt. Algodon
Lima Pt.
Tuna
Cayo
Cerro Gordo
Espino
Cayey
Montellano
Cidra
Aguas Buenas
Caguas
Naranjo
Rincon
Lirios
Valenciano abajo
Cañabon
Cang Bonito
S. Lorenzo
Culebras
Cayaguas
Florida
Barros
Sumidero
Mulas
Bayamon
Cataño
Palo seco
Pueblo viejo
Catano
Light
Hato Rey
Monacillo
Frailes
Guaynabo
Trujillo Alto
Carolina
Rio Grande
Canovanas
Loiza
Canovanas
Carruzo
Canas
Cupey
Mamey
Alo-nuevo
Barrasal
Cedro
Cubuy
Pitahal
Guzman
Juncos
Naguabo
Ceiba
Dunque
Saco
Palma
Duque
Dagnas
Cabras I.
Pt. Puerca
Pt. Figueroa
Fajardo
Quebrada Honda
Quebrada Seca
Quebrada Grande
Quebrada Limones
Quebrada Arenas
Quebrada Honda
Quebrada Palma

and he had so impressed the naval administration with his ability that he was advanced to the highest rank in the navy. He was born in Palmyra, Wayne County, N. Y., February 9, 1840, was appointed to the Naval Academy in 1857, and was graduated at the head of his class. He was executive officer of the *Patapsco* when, on January 15, 1865, she attempted to enter the harbor of Charleston, which bristled with mines. He exposed himself fearlessly to the rifle-firing, standing on the bridge when the missiles came so fast that the sailors and marines were ordered below to save themselves from annihilation. Soon after, while the *Patapsco* was slowly steaming forward, a mine exploded under her, hurling the ship in air and shattering her to pieces. Sampson was blown a hundred feet and fell back into the water with twenty-five of the crew, all of whom were picked up. Seventy, however, had gone down with the wreck, perishing as did the

A Terrific Explosion

THE "VIZCAYA" (FORMERLY OF THE SPANISH NAVY)

poor fellows in the *Maine* a generation later. Sampson became lieutenant-commander in 1866, and was at the Naval Academy for the three following years, his first command being the *Alert*, to which he was assigned after attaining the grade of commander in 1874. In 1888 he became superintendent of the Naval Academy and served for four years, filling other positions with marked ability, the last of which was chief of the Bureau of Ordnance from 1893 to 1897.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1898

Rear-Admiral Winfield Scott Schley (*sly*), was born in Frederick, Md., October 9, 1839, and was graduated from the Naval Academy just in time to take part in the Civil War. He saw lively service

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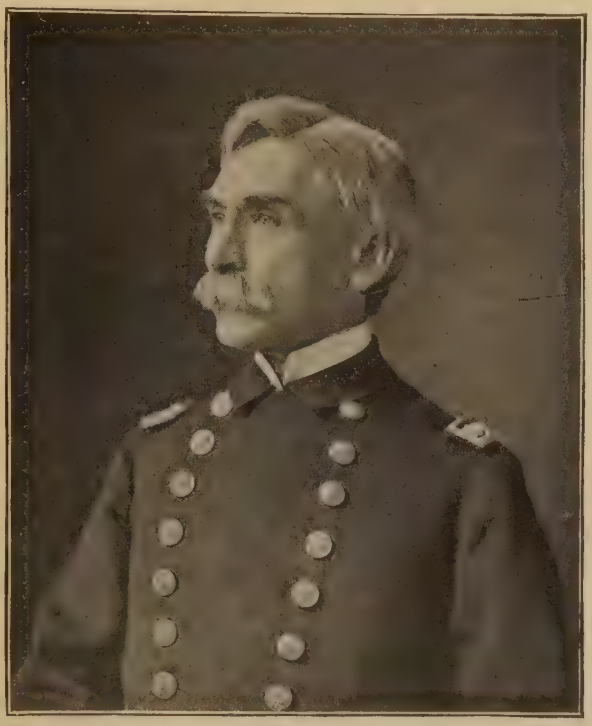
REAR-ADMIRAL WINFIELD S. SCHLEY, U. S. N.

along the Mississippi River and was commissioned lieutenant in July, 1862, and lieutenant-commander in July, 1866, after which he spent three years on duty at the Naval Academy. He was made

commander in June, 1874, and passed five years on the North and South Atlantic stations and the western coast of Africa. Until July, 1898, Schley's most famous exploit was the rescue of the Greely arctic expedition, the particulars of which have been given in a preceding chapter. The Navy Department thanked him for his tact and success in settling the threatened complication arising from the stoning of a party of American sailors from the *Baltimore* by a mob of Chilians at Valparaiso.



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REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN C. WATSON, U. S. N.

Rear-Admiral John C. Watson

Rear-Admiral John C. Watson was born in Frankfort, Kentucky, August 24, 1842, and belongs to one of the leading families of the State. He was graduated high in his class at the Naval Academy in June, 1860, and was abroad as a midshipman at the breaking out of the war. He was made master August 31, 1861, but began his career as a real fighter in the following January, when he was navigator of the *Hartford*, flagship of Admiral Farragut. He was commissioned lieutenant July 16, 1862, and in January, 1864, was made flag-lieutenant to Farragut. He was wounded at Mobile Bay and was highly praised for his gallantry by the heroic old Admiral. Had not our war with Spain ended so soon, Admiral Watson would have commanded a squadron of invincible power that was made up to desolate the coast of Spain. He was placed on the retired list of the navy August 24, 1904.

Captain Robley D. Evans, or "Fighting Bob," as he is better known, is one of the most striking and picturesque figures in the American navy. He was born in Virginia in 1846, and received his appointment to the Naval Academy from the congressional delegate of Utah. He entered the Academy in 1860, and upon his graduation served as midshipman and ensign. While still a boy he took part in the desperate assault upon Fort Fisher, where he was so frightfully wounded that for a time his life was despaired of and he was permanently lamed. He served in numerous positions, and was commander of the *Yorktown* at the time the sailors from the *Baltimore* were mobbed at Valparaiso. His pluck and fearlessness speedily taught those people that it was unsafe for them to trifle with him and did much toward gaining him the name by which he is best known. He dislikes the appellation of "Fighting Bob," for he insists that he has no more claim to it than scores of his fellow officers, but it will always stick to him. By his own request he was detached from the command of the *Iowa*, September 15, 1898, he having served more than his term of sea duty, and was appointed to membership on the Board of Inspection and Survey.

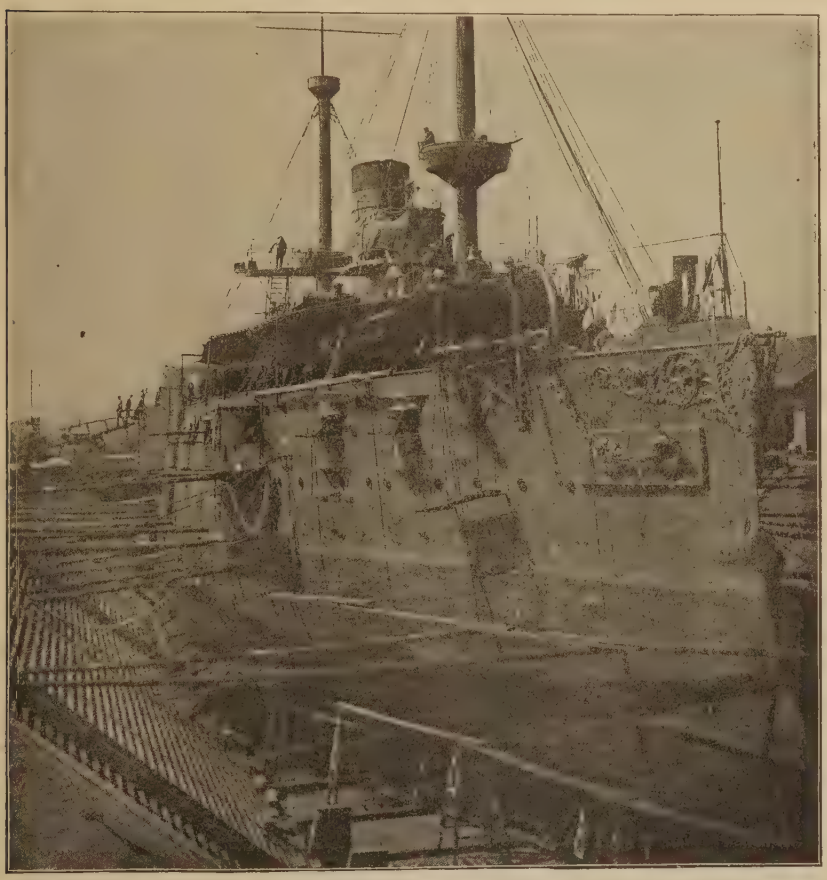
CAPTAIN ROBLEY D. EVANS, U. S. N.

Rear-Admiral Philip

Rear-Admiral John H. Philip, of the *Texas*, was one of the bravest and most modest of heroes. His appeal to his men in the flush of victory, "Don't cheer, boys; the poor fellows are dying!" struck a responsive chord in every breast and did more than the gallant officer dreamed of to make his name remembered the world over.

Captain Philip was made Commodore and then Rear-Admiral and placed in charge of the Brookly Navy Yard, where, mourned by the whole country, he died suddenly of heart disease, June 30, 1900.

Admiral George Dewey was the naval hero of the war with Spain. Not only did he win the admiring gratitude of his countrymen by his



THE "TEXAS" IN DRY DOCK

A Popular Hero

wonderful victory in Manila Bay, but he proved himself to be wise, tactful, and far-seeing throughout the trying months that followed, when almost any other person holding his responsible position would have involved the United States in trouble with at least one foreign Power. In following this line he was not weak or yielding, but firmly maintained his attitude of justice and right, and, through the exercise of

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1898

his admirable diplomatic ability, added laurels to those already crowning his glorious work in battle.

George Dewey was born in Montpelier, Vt., in 1838, and belonged

ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY, U. S. N.

Dewey's Early Life

to a family whose ancestors came from England and settled in Dorchester, Mass., in 1633. He was a lively youngster, a leader among mischievous boys in school, and, when he undertook to head a rebellion against a wiry young pedagogue, received the trouncing he deserved, and forever after entertained a strong friendship for the instructor who administered the punishment.

He was graduated with honors from the Naval Academy in 1858, and two years later received his first commission as lieutenant. Eight days after the firing upon Fort Sumter he was transferred to the *Mississippi* of the West Gulf squadron, and the following year was ordered to aid Farragut's fleet and assisted in the capture of New

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"NEW ORLEANS," U. S. N.

Orleans. This was hard but excellent schooling for the future naval hero. In an attempt to run past the Confederate batteries at Port Hudson, the *Mississippi* was raked by two hundred and fifty shots fore and aft, and, unable to save the ship, the guns were spiked and Dewey was one of the last two to leave the burning wreck.

Dewey in the Civil War

Dewey did not go to Mobile with Farragut, but was assigned to duty on the James River. He distinguished himself in the attack on Fort Fisher, and was made lieutenant-commander in 1866 and assigned to the *Kearsarge*, the conqueror of the *Alabama*. She was attached to the European squadron, and Dewey was transferred to the flagship *Colorado*. He served in 1868 and 1869 at the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and received his first command in 1870, when he was placed in charge of the *Narragansett*. A long period of peaceful service followed, during which he was engaged in inspecting torpedo stations, in ocean surveys, principally in the Pacific, followed by that

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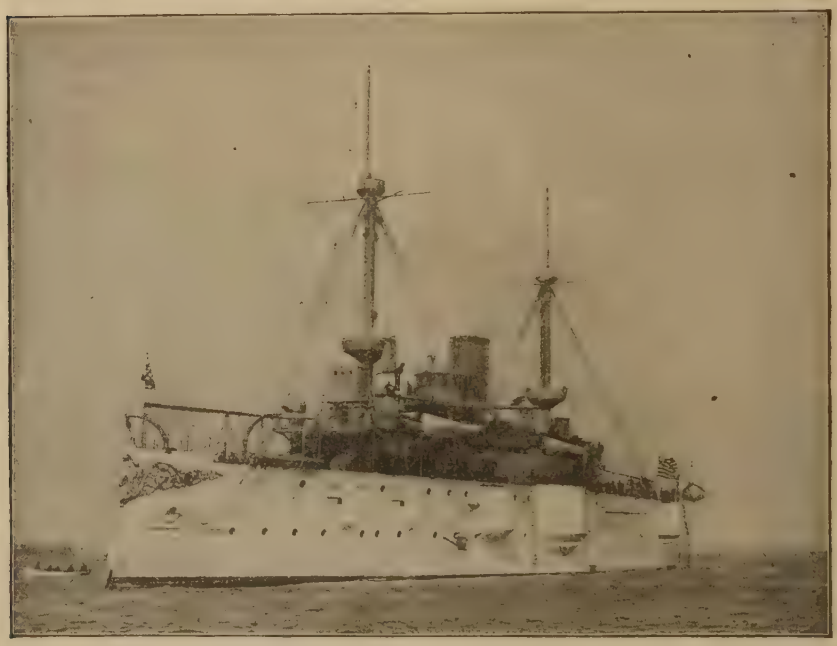
of inspector of lighthouses, he becoming secretary of the Lighthouse Board. In 1882 he was appointed to command the *Juniata* in the Asiatic squadron. He became captain in 1884 and was assigned to the command of the *Dolphin*, forming one of the original White Squadron, then including only four ships of war. His commission as commodore was given to him in February, 1896, and the following



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"TEXAS," U. S. N.

year he was assigned to the command of the Asiatic squadron in Chinese waters, where, fortunately for our country, he was stationed at the outbreak of the war with Spain.

Dewey was made rear-admiral May 10, 1898, and on March 2, 1899, Congress passed an act reviving the grade of full admiral, which the President immediately conferred upon Dewey. The only other naval officers who have held this rank were Farragut and David D. Porter.

Unseen Heroes

It would be unjust to close this chapter without a tribute to those who may be called the unseen heroes on the warships, who are as indispensable as the officers that issue the commands and the crew who fire the guns.

THE "INFANTA MARIA TERESA" (FORMERLY OF THE SPANISH NAVY)

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In the destruction of Cervera's fleet the fire-rooms on the American vessels were closed up, the forced-draught blowers started, the engine-room battle-hatches shut down, and all hands below virtually sealed up in their air-tight coffins, awaiting, for aught they knew, a watery grave. The temperature soon became terrific. In the lower engine-rooms of the *Texas*, in front of the ventilating blowers, it was 136°, and in the upper ones 190°. No man can live in such a heat for more than a few minutes every half-hour or so, but those brave fellows stood unflinchingly to their work, and their grim heroism was shown by an old veteran of the Civil War who remarked that, poor as he was, he would rather give fifty dollars "out of his clothes" than to see the *Cristobal Colon* get away.

Later Facts Regarding the Philippines

The latest information regarding the Philippines shows that the whole number of islands is about 2,000, with a land and sea area of 1,200 miles of latitude and 2,400 miles of longitude. The largest island is Luzon, whose capital is Manila. In size this single island is about the same as the State of New York. Mindanao is almost as large but its population is much less. The census taken in 1902-3 estimates the inhabitants at about 8,000,000, of whom 7,000,000 are civilized and the remainder savages. The islands contain thirty tribes, each of which speaks a different dialect from the others. The Catholic religion, introduced by Spain more than three centuries ago, has had a dominant influence ever since. Three distinctive seasons prevail: temperate and dry from November to February, hot and dry from March to May, and temperate and wet from June to October. In July and August the rains are copious and continuous. The extreme ranges of temperature are given as 61° and 97°, with a mean of 81°.

It is believed that the Philippines possess a good deal of mineral wealth, though as yet we have little authentic information on this point. Nearly all the islands contain deposits of coal, petroleum, iron, lead, copper and sulphur, with gold in a number of places, but hardly anything has been done thus far in the way of developing these sources of wealth. A number of concessions have been made, but the industry is in its infancy.

With its highly fertile soil, capable of yielding an almost endless variety of productions, only one-ninth of the surface is under production. There is little doubt that when cultivation is thoroughly carried out, the Philippines can support five or six times their present population. The principal products are rice, corn, sugar, tobacco, hemp, cocoanuts and cacao. At one time coffee was

extensively raised for export and cotton for home consumption, but an insect pest has virtually exterminated the former, and the importation of English cotton cloths has driven the domestic out of the market. The annual rice crop of some 765,000 tons is insufficient for the demand, and about 50,000 tons are imported from Saigon, Hong Kong and Singapore. Of the 60,000 barrels of flour imported, less than one-third comes from the United States and two-thirds from China. The corn crop is consumed at home. Cacao is raised in the southern islands, the best quality in Mindanao. The sugar cane is cultivated in the Visayas, one-tenth being used at home, and most of the rest exported to Great Britain, China and Australia. Tobacco is raised in all the islands, the best and most growing in Luzon. The superior quality is sent abroad, the men and nearly all the women using the inferior grade. Hemp is produced in Southern Luzon, Mindoro, the Visayas and Mindanao, while Southern Luzon furnishes the cocoanuts. The report for the year ending June 30, 1903, shows that the total imports from the Philippines to the United States were $11,372,854, while we sent $4,028,677 thither. Great Britain, China and Spain are the principal countries trading with the Philippines. By act of Congress, July 1, 1902, the office of military governor with military rule was terminated and complete civil government established in the archipelago.

Porto Rico

The United States took formal possession of Porto Rico, as we know, on October 18, 1898. The area is about one and a half times that of Delaware. The population in 1900 was not quite a million, four-fifths of whom were unable to read. The soil is remarkably fertile and agriculture and lumbering are the principal industries. The forests contain more than five hundred varieties of trees. The chief crops are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton and maize. Coffee is the main export, being more than double the value of sugar, which ranks next, with the other exports ranking in order, tobacco, honey, molasses, cattle, timber and hides.

Porto Rico is rich in minerals, the leading industry in that field being salt. Salt works are at Cape Rojo on the west and at Guanica and Salinac on the south coast. Lignite and yellow amber are found at Utuado and Moca. There is an abundance of building stones, but the industry awaits development. Gold, carbonates and sulphides of copper and magnetic oxide of iron abound.

An act providing a civil government for Porto Rico was passed by Congress, approved by the President, April 12, 1900, and went into effect May 1, following. Two legislative chambers are provided,

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the upper house or executive council consisting of the government secretary, attorney-general, treasurer, auditor, commissioner of the interior, and commissioner of education, and five citizens appointed by the President, and the lower house, or house of delegates, composed of thirty-five members elected by the people. A resident commissioner represents the island near the Congress of the United States.

Guam

We have learned of the capture of the island of Guam, the largest of the Ladrone Archipelago, and of its cession to us by the Treaty of Paris, December 10, 1898. It is about 32 miles long and 100 miles in circumference, with a population of nearly 9,000, of whom two-thirds are in Agana, the capital. The original race is extinct, the people being mostly immigrants or the descendants of immigrants from the Philippines. Nearly all the islanders can read and write Spanish, which is the prevailing language. The island is well watered and fertile with a good deal of forest, and the productions are rice, corn, tobacco, cacao and tropical fruits.

Other Pacific Islands

By virtue of the tri-partite treaty with Great Britain and Germany in 1899, Tutuila, the Samoan island, with the islets of Tau, Olesniga and Ofu, became a possession of the United States. Tutuila has an area of fifty-four square miles and 5,800 inhabitants. Pago-Pago is the most valuable island harbor in the South Pacific. Ex-Chief Justice Chambers, of Samoa, says of it: "The harbor could hold the entire naval force of the United States, and is so perfectly arranged that only two vessels can enter at the same time. The coaling station, being surrounded by high bluffs, can not be reached by shells from the outside." The importance of this harbor to nations aiming to cultivate transpacific commerce will be understood. The Samoan Islands number fourteen, the inhabitants being native Polynesians and Christians of various denominations. All the group, except those owned by the United States, is governed by Germany.

Commander Taussig, of the United States gunboat *Bennington*, while on his way to Guam (where he hoisted his flag over Fort Santa Cruz, February 1, 1899) halted at Wake Island in January and took formal possession. A number of insignificant islands scattered in the Pacific Ocean have come under our flag from time to time. Many are uninhabited and have little present value. The principal are Christmas, Gallego, Palmyra, Phœnix, Starbuck, Penrhyn, Baker, Howland, Johnston, Midway, Gardner, Morell, and Marcus Islands. The Santa Barbara group forms a part of California, while the Aleutian chain is a part of Alaska.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Longitude East from Greenwich.
120
125
CANTON
CHINA
Hai-fong
Whei-choo
Kiahtz
Kowloon
Hongkong (British)
Macao (Port.)
FORMOSA (TO JAPAN)
Ta-kau
Pelam
South Cape
BOTOL TOBAGO I.
BASHEE CHANNEL
BASHEE ISLANDS
BATAN ISLANDS
SCALES.
Statute Miles, 110=1 Inch.
0 50 100 150 200 250
Kilometres, 176=1 Inch.
0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 450
Rand, McNally & Co.'s New 11 x 14 Map of Philippine Islands.
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20
15
BALINTANG CHANNEL
CLARO BABUYAN
CALAYAN I.
BABUYAN ISLANDS
DALUPIRI I.
FUGA
CAMIGUIN I.
PACIFIC OCEAN
C. Bojeador
Bangui
Claveria
Masi
Aparri
Pt. Engano
Laoag
Linao
Pt. Iligan
Cagua Vol. 3,625
Badoc
Mt. Pacsan
Lal-lo
Cabugao
Amulung
Vigan
Tuguegabao
Banguet
Cabagan
Candon
Tumauini
Bontoc
Ilagan
Palanan
Baruncucureng
S. Fernando
LINGAYEN GULF
Bolinao
C. Bolinao
Bugunis
Camarag
Benguet
Bayombong
Dilusac Bay
Pt. Tumango
Igno
Pt. Caiman
Bazol Bay
Carranglan
C. S. Ildefonso
Dagupan
Mt. Lagsic
Dicapuleo
Baler
LUZON
Tarlac
Bongabong
Mt. Baler
Dingalan Bay
Iba
Araya
Porac
S. Isidro
L. Candava
POLILLO I.
Bacolor
Orani
Subic
Bulacan
Pt. Binaptican
MANILA
Polillo
Balanga
Morong
JOMALIG
BAY
TARLAC
Tibac
Aliaga
Samoa
Cabo'
Cabanatuan
S. Jose
S. Vicente
Carmen
Sta. Rosa
La Paz
Murcia
La Paz vieja
Pamaepacan
Bicobbicol
Concepcion
S. Francisco
Penaranda
Manidlin
O'Donnell
Capas
S. Antonio
Jaen
S. Lorenzo
Gapan
S. ISIDRO
Entablado
Sto. Cristo
Polo
Bamban
Masapipi
Cabiao
Baluarte
Bo Mayontoc
Iba
Magalang
Mabalacat
Quitanquin
S. Isidro
Palungan
Calumpang
Pandan
Angeles
Calabasa
Batasan
S. Miguel de Mayumo
S. Nicolas
Batasan
Candaba
Macapilapit
Outcut
Del Rosario
Mexico
Sta. Maria
Maguinoc
Porac
S. Antonio
S. Luis
Pulongsantol
S. Jose
Malapao
Sampaloc
Santol
Sta. Rita
BACOLOR
S. Simon
S. Rafael
Batis
S. Torres
Balbas
Bustos
Mingtin
Malit
Lino
Angat
Lubao
S. Miguel
Calumpit
Cuhanin
Norzagaray
Sexmoan
Macabebe
Dinalupijan
Calumpan
Quingua
Parasoan
Sta. Isabel
Llana Hermosa
Lo. Nino
Malolos
Bigaa
Sta. Maria de Pandi
Orani
Hagonoy
Bulihan
S. Jose'
Tubutubo
BULACAN
Bocaue
Prensa
Montalban
Samal
Marilao
Malaca
Mabatan
Meycauayan
Novaliches
R. Pasig
R. Malagonan
R. Nayao Grande
Abucay
Polo
S. Mateo
Obando
Tinajeros
BALANGA
Matabon
Navotas
Caloocan
Mariquina
Rilar
S. Francisco del Monte
Orion
Pt. Pandan
MANILA
S. Juan del Monte
Cainta
Taytay
MANILA
Ermita
Pedro
Macati
Pasig
Limay
Malate
Pineda
Pateros
Taguig
Angono
Malibay
Paranaque
Pt. Lamao
Mte.
CAVITE
Rio Grande de la Pampanga
Rio Chico
Rio Pampanga
Rio Grande de la Pampanga
Rio Agno
Rio Agno
Rio Agno

VICINITY OF MANILA.
14 Miles = 1 Inch.
La Monja
Palo Caballo
Calibuyo
Boca Grande
I. Carabao
Ternate
Naic
Fuerte Quintana
Sabian
Carmona
Imus
Bian
Sta. Rosa
Nagtuyan
Cabuyao
Perez Dasmarinas
Maragondon
Silang
Pt. Jamillo
Pico de Loro
Indang
Amadeo
Mte. Sungay
Magallanes
Alfonso
Talisay
Sto. Tomas
Bo de Caitinja
L. de Taal
C H I N A
S E A
PALAWAN
Ulugan Bay
Malampaya Bay
Taytay Bay
Cleopatras Needle
Cook Channel
Cuyos Is.
Dumaran I.
Bahia Honda (Deep Bay)
Victoria Peak
Malanoa I.
Basa or Sombrero I.
Mt. Mantalingajan
Island Bay
Puerto Princesa
S. Antonio Bay
Buliluyan Pt.
Bougsock I.
Balabac I.
Balabac Strait
Balambangan I.
Banguey I.
Sampannangio Pt.
Cagayan Sulu I.
Paitan Bay
Maruda
Abai
Labuk Bay
Sandakan Bay
NORTH BORNEO
Brunei Bay
Brunei
(BRITISH)
Darvel Bay
Sibutu I.
Sibutu Passage
Pearl Bank
C. Unsang
Tawee I.
Tapul Is.
Cap I.
Pangootaran Islands
Sulu I.
Sulu Archipelago
S U L U
S E A
O R
M I N D O R A
S E A
Cagayanes Islands
Cartagena
Victoria Peak
Cuyos Is.
Naso Pt.
Antique
S. Jose
Iloilo
Guimaras
Panay I.
Batan
Culasi
Pandan
Quiniluban Is.
Linacapan I.
Cabuli Pt.
Sibay I.
Pt. Nasog
Semerara I.
Ylin
Pt. Buruncan
Busuanga I.
Calamianes Islands
Calamian I.
Mangarin
Bulalacao
Donjon
Borgabon
Mindoro I.
Mindoro Strait
C. Calavite
Mamburao
Calapan
Mt. Halcon
Majunduque I.
Bondog Pt.
Burias I.
Masbate I.
Nin B.
Tugapula
Calbayog
Samar I.
Catbalogan
Borongan
Basey
Lanang
Guiuan
Sungi Pt.
Malhou I.
Leyte I.
Camotes Is.
Baybay
Ormoc
Dagami
Tacloban
Pt. Mandoc
Cuduruan
Mesa
Biliran
Carabao I.
Calivo
Panay
Concepcion
Bantayan I.
Tabogon
Malaspina Vol.
Zebu (Cebu)
Mactan I.
Talisay
Negros I.
Guimaras Strait
Bacolot Strait
Tanon Strait
Zebu I.
Bohol I.
Tubigon
Maribojoc
Panglao I.
Baclayon
Loboc
Dumaguete
Tolon
Bais
Quinaly
Canayan
Siaton Pt.
Bacon Vol.
Bacon
Fuedos I.
Camiguin I.
Surigao Strait
Panaon I.
Surigao I.
Bucas I.
Cauit Pt.
Tabay
Tago
Butuan
Butuan Bay
Agusan River
Liangan
Bislig
Sanco Pt.
Hasaan
Talacogon
Cagayan
Tagolo Pt.
Dapitan
Iligan Bay
Lubungan
Tabonan Pt.
Sindangan Bay
Misamis
L. Malanao
Pt. Gorda
Sta. Maria
Mindanao
Zamboanga Peninsula
Gulf of Sibuguey
Illana Bay
Pt. Flechas
Dumanquilas Bay
Olutanga I.
Zamboanga
Basilan Strait
Basilan Island
La Isabela
Basilan
Polloc
Macaturing
Vol.
Davao
Apo Mt.
Ligangasan L.
Boayan
Linao Bay
L. Buluan
Pujada Bay
C. S. Augustin
Davao Bay
Canaren
Pola Pt.
Boayagan
Serangani Bay
Serangani Pt.
Serangani Islands
C E L E B E S
S E A
Moncayo
Danaan
Caraga
Mindanao
Mt. Mayon
Albay
Port Legazpi or Albay
Mazaraga
S. Pascual
Bulusan Vol.
Baliguatro Is.
Batag I.
Palapa
Catarman
Ticao
Romblon
Tablas I.
Sibuyan I.
Ylin
Nin B.
Tugapula
Calbayog
Samar I.
Catbalogan
Borongan
Basey
Lanang
Guiuan
Sungi Pt.
Malhou I.
Leyte I.
Camotes Is.
Baybay
Ormoc
Dagami
Tacloban
Pt. Mandoc
Cuduruan
Mesa
Biliran
Carabao I.
Calivo
Panay
Concepcion
Bantayan I.
Tabogon
Malaspina Vol.
Zebu (Cebu)
Mactan I.
Talisay
Negros I.
Guimaras Strait
Bacolot Strait
Tanon Strait
Zebu I.
Bohol I.
Tubigon
Maribojoc
Panglao I.
Baclayon
Loboc
Dumaguete
Tolon
Bais
Quinaly
Canayan
Siaton Pt.
Bacon Vol.
Bacon
Fuedos I.
Camiguin I.
Surigao Strait
Panaon I.
Surigao I.
Bucas I.
Cauit Pt.
Tabay
Tago
Butuan
Butuan Bay
Agusan River
Liangan
Bislig
Sanco Pt.
Hasaan
Talacogon
Cagayan
Tagolo Pt.
Dapitan
Iligan Bay
Lubungan
Tabonan Pt.
Sindangan Bay
Misamis
L. Malanao
Pt. Gorda
Sta. Maria
Mindanao
Zamboanga Peninsula
Gulf of Sibuguey
Illana Bay
Pt. Flechas
Dumanquilas Bay
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Zamboanga
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Basilan Island
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L. Buluan
Pujada Bay
C. S. Augustin
Davao Bay
Canaren
Pola Pt.
Boayagan
Serangani Bay
Serangani Pt.
Serangani Islands
Moncayo
Danaan
Caraga
Mindanao
Mt. Mayon
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Port Legazpi or Albay
Mazaraga
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Batag I.
Palapa
Catarman
Ticao
Romblon
Tablas I.
Sibuyan I.
Ylin
Nin B.
Tugapula
Calbayog
Samar I.
Catbalogan
Borongan
Basey
Lanang
Guiuan
Sungi Pt.
Malhou I.
Leyte I.
Camotes Is.
Baybay
Ormoc
Dagami
Tacloban
Pt. Mandoc
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Bacolot Strait
Tanon Strait
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Bohol I.
Tubigon
Maribojoc
Panglao I.
Baclayon
Loboc
Dumaguete
Tolon
Bais
Quinaly
Canayan
Siaton Pt.
Bacon Vol.
Bacon
Fuedos I.
Camiguin I.
Surigao Strait
Panaon I.
Surigao I.
Bucas I.
Cauit Pt.
Tabay
Tago
Butuan
Butuan Bay
Agusan River
Liangan
Bislig
Sanco Pt.
Hasaan
Talacogon
Cagayan
Tagolo Pt.
Dapitan
Iligan Bay
Lubungan
Tabonan Pt.
Sindangan Bay
Misamis
L. Malanao
Pt. Gorda
Sta. Maria
Mindanao
Zamboanga Peninsula
Gulf of Sibuguey
Illana Bay
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Pujada Bay
C. S. Augustin
Davao Bay
Canaren
Pola Pt.
Boayagan
Serangani Bay
Serangani Pt.
Serangani Islands
Moncayo
Danaan
Caraga
Mindanao
Mt. Mayon
Albay
Port Legazpi or Albay
Mazaraga
S. Pascual
Bulusan Vol.
Baliguatro Is.
Batag I.
Palapa
Catarman
Ticao
Romblon
Tablas I.
Sibuyan I.
Ylin
Nin B.
Tugapula
Calbayog
Samar I.
Catbalogan
Borongan
Basey
Lanang
Guiuan
Sungi Pt.
Malhou I.
Leyte I.
Camotes Is.
Baybay
Ormoc
Dagami
Tacloban
Pt. Mandoc
Cuduruan
Mesa
Biliran
Carabao I.
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Tubigon
Maribojoc
Panglao I.
Baclayon
Loboc
Dumaguete
Tolon
Bais
Quinaly
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Siaton Pt.
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Talacogon
Cagayan
Tagolo Pt.
Dapitan
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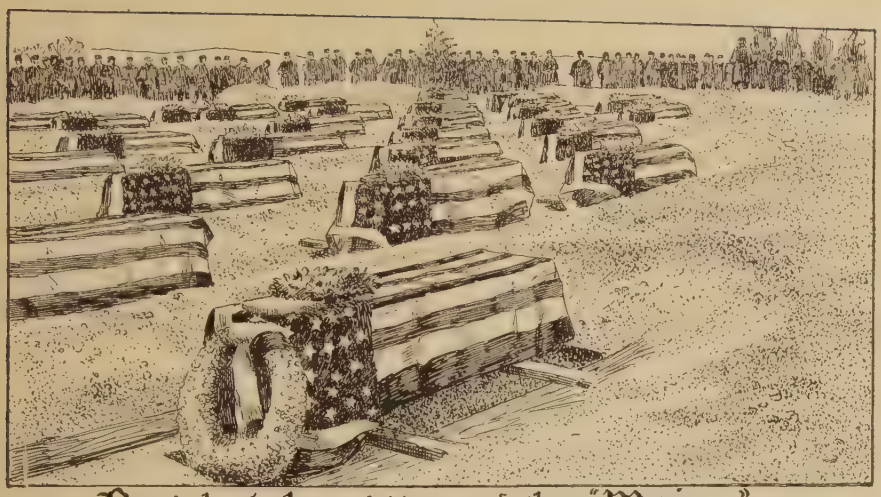
Linao Bay
L. Buluan
Pujada Bay
C. S. Augustin
Davao Bay
Canaren
Pola Pt.
Boayagan
Serangani Bay
Serangani Pt.
Serangani Islands
10°
5°
115°
120°
125°



Burial of the victims of the "Maine" at Arlington Cemetery

CHAPTER CVIII

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*)

[It may be claimed that the United States has now fairly entered upon its era of colonial expansion. In addition to the more important islands in the West Indies and the far Pacific she acquires another of the Samoan group. True, this island of itself possesses slight importance, yet its fine harbor gives it a distinctive value, and its acquisition has a significance the full import of which the future alone can make known. Our country is making history rapidly, as the events of the closing years of the century show, and one can only wonder as he vainly speculates upon what the twentieth century has in store for the Republic, favored of heaven above all other nations, and destined to be among the very foremost of nations in carrying progress, civilization, and religion to the remotest corners of the earth.]

Island of Tutuila

The Samoan Treaty

BY AN agreement between the United States, Great Britain, and Germany concerning Samoa, made in the latter part of 1899, Great Britain waived her rights in that archipelago, the Samoan islands of Savaii and Upolu were made over to Germany, and the third and least important island, Tutuila, was reserved for the United States. It is upon this island that the great harbor of Pago-Pago, claimed to be the finest in the South Pacific, is situated, a fact which gives it a marked value to our country. On January 16, 1900, the United States Senate, in executive session, ratified the treaty without an opposing vote.

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On December 28, 1899, with solemn and impressive ceremonies, the remains of the sailors who went down with the *Maine* in the harbor of Havana were laid at rest in the National Cemetery at Arlington. The funeral train, bearing 151 coffins, was accompanied by an escort of fifteen sailors from the *Texas*, under command of Lieutenant Benham, U. S. N., and without any military display the coffins were loaded upon the army wagons sent from Fort Myer to carry them to the cemetery. In each wagon were two coffins, with a large flag spread across the top.

Burial of "Maine" Victims

The day was overcast and chilly, and there had been a slight fall of snow the night before. President McKinley was accompanied from the White House by Secretary Long and by Captain Sigsbee, of the *Texas*, who had been captain of the *Maine* at the time of her destruction. They were followed by Chaplain Clark, of the Naval Academy, and a detachment of bluejackets from the navy yard, under Lieutenant Gise, U. S. N., escorting the fifteen sailors of the *Texas* who had convoyed the bodies from Newport News to Arlington. A detachment of marines, under Lieutenant Bates, and one from the Marine Barracks, under Colonel Harrington, accompanied by the Marine Band and troops of cavalry from Fort Myer, made a cordon around the graves. Among those on the stand were Assistant Secretary Allen, Commander Wainwright, Admiral Dewey, Secretary Root, Secretary Gage, Postmaster-General Smith, General Miles, General Gilmore, Colonel Michie, and others.

Upon the arrival of the President the Marine Band began a dirge, and when the Presidential party had taken their seats Chaplain Clark stepped forward to a little shelter near the graves and read the Episcopal burial service. Chaplain Chidwick, formerly of the *Maine*, then conducted the Catholic service, assisted by Fathers Holland and Bonner. Three volleys were then fired by the marines, "taps" sounded, and the crowd melted away.

Reciprocity with France

A new convention with France, which allowed a wider application of the principles of reciprocity,—at present the only existing treaty affecting trade with an important commercial nation—was signed in Washington by Ambassador Cambon and Commissioner Kasson, July 24, 1899. This convention placed the products of the United States on the same basis in France as those of Great Britain and Germany, which had previously the advantage of lower rates on the majority of their exports. On July 22 President McKinley proclaimed a reci-

procity convention with Portugal, which also secured a large reduction on many articles.

The administration of General Russell A. Alger, who was at the head of the War Department during the war with Spain, was very severely criticised, and on the 19th of July, 1899, he tendered his resignation to the President, who accepted it and appointed in his place Mr. Elihu Root, who on the 1st of August took the oath of office as Secretary of War. Mr. Root was born in Clinton, N. Y., February 15, 1845, and was graduated at Hamilton College in 1864, valedictorian of his class. He was admitted to the bar in 1867 and became a successful lawyer and prominent in politics. In 1879 he was defeated in his candidacy for the office of Judge of the Court of Common Pleas in New York city, but he became a leader of the Republican organization of his assembly district and President Arthur appointed him United States District Attorney for the Southern District of New York, an office which he held for two years. In 1886 and 1887 he was the chairman of the Republican County Committee, and in 1894 he was elected Chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the State Constitutional Convention. Mr. Root was prominent for years in some of the most important litigation in the metropolis, was president of the Republican Club of New York, and

HON. ELIHU ROOT, SECRETARY OF WAR

Secretary Root

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in 1898 succeeded General Horace Porter as president of the Union League Club.

By appointment of the President General Leonard Wood became the successor of General Brooke as governor-general of Cuba, and on the 21st of December, 1899, he accepted the resignations of General Brooke's advisory cabinet. On the following day he announced his Cuban cabinet as follows: Secretary of State and Government, Diego Tamayo; Secretary of Justice, Luis Esterez; Secretary of Instruction, Juan B. Hernandez; Secretary of Finance, Enrique Varona; Secretary of Public Works, José R. Villaton; Secretary of Agriculture, Ruiz Rivera. The administration of Governor Wood in a trying situation has fully justified the high expectations of his friends and of those who are familiar with his brilliant work of previous years.

By courtesy of H. W. Fay.

GENERAL LEONARD WOOD

The frequent discoveries of immense gold deposits in different parts of the world—often in the most unexpected places—sometimes cause speculation as to whether the time will not come when this precious metal will be found so widely distributed that its market value will suffer serious depreciation. And yet it has maintained its dominating value for ages past, as it will probably do for ages to come.

In preceding pages of this work an account has been given of the enormous gold field in the Klondike region. The excitement respecting this discovery had abated only to some extent when reports were spread of the discovery of a new gold field in Alaska. Unlike the Klondike district this region lies wholly within American territory.

The Cape Nome gold field is situated on the west coast of Alaska, on Behring Sea, about one hundred miles northwest of St. Michael. Its distance by steamer from Seattle is 2,700 miles, and it extends from the promontory called Cape Nome for about thirty miles along the coast to the northwest and some twenty miles inland to the north.

The natural features of this small district are divided into the three regions of beach, tundra, and mountains, in all of which formations gold is found. The gold originally came from the mountains, being washed out of the disintegrating rocks and finding lodgment in the sands of the beach as it was carried seaward by the streams. Along the beach the gold is quite fine, often no larger in size than bird-shot. This is due to wave action and the friction of sand and gravel. Being heavier than sand it has gradually worked its way downward, most of it being found under two or three feet of sand on a bottom layer of clay which the miners call "bedrock." Here the gold is extracted by the common methods of sluicing and rocking.

Inland is a coastal shelf which near the beach is about thirty feet above sea level. It slopes gradually upward for four or five miles, at which distance the base of the mountains is reached at an elevation of 150 or 200 feet. This shelf forms the tundra zone, which, being traversed by the streams which flow from the mountains, is wet and boggy during the summer. The tundra is composed of gravel drift from the disintegrating rocky hills, and, while it contains gold yielding from ten to thirty cents a pan, capital is necessary to handle the tundra with profit.

Mining the Tundra

The source of all the gold found in the tundra and on the beach is of course the mountains. The diggings have been extended into many of the gulches through which the mountain streams flow. The largest nugget thus far found has not exceeded $350 in value. The first discovery of gold was made in September, 1898, when a party of Swedes observed it in the creeks and gulches. The beach gold was not found until July, 1899. Nome City, by the middle of October of that year, had a population of 5,000, its inhabitants living in tents and on the beach. Some of the mining towns in California and other portions of the West had a phenomenally quick growth, but it is doubtful whether any of them sprang up so rapidly as Nome City. Miners flocked thither from all the other gold districts of Alaska, among them being a thousand unsuccessful prospectors from the

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northwest who were financially stranded at St. Michael. Most of those who made their way to the new gold district rocked out enough gold to pay their way home, while others did still better. Four newspapers were printed there in the fall of 1899, and three large trading companies had fairly well-stocked warehouses. The severity of the climate caused a good many to leave for the States on the approach of winter, but most of these and many others eagerly returned in the spring of 1900. The winter population was about 3,000, scattered along the beach and in the valleys near Nome City. Naturally the people are of mixed characters and nationalities, but the majority are Americans, among whom are a good many business men and law-abiding citizens. The amount of gold taken out of the sands during the summer of 1899 was fully $2,000,000.

Nome City

The National Export Exposition

The National Export Exposition, which opened in Philadelphia September 14, 1899, and continued until November 30, was one of the most important ever held in this country. Its object was the advancement of American trade in foreign markets, and through that the promotion of more cordial commercial relations with other countries. It was the outgrowth of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, which, through the direction of Dr. W. P. Wilson, has a world-wide reputation as a bureau of industrial information. The Franklin Institute united in the enterprise, which was supported by the city of Philadelphia, the State of Pennsylvania, and the United States Congress. In aid of its object Congress appropriated $350,000, the State $75,000, and the city $200,000. Dr. Wilson, director of the Museum, was director-general of the Exposition, and Mr. P. A. B. Widener, of Philadelphia, was president of the Exposition company.

War in the Philippines

The war with Spain closed in what may be called the due and ancient form between civilized nations, but it was followed by hostilities in the Philippines that were of a desultory character, lasting through weary, aggravating months, seemingly with little substantial progress on the part of the United States, though all the time the inevitable end was steadily drawing near.

There was a sameness in the news from that distant land which grew monotonous. Whenever the Americans attacked, they swept everything before them. While the losses on our side were so trifling as to look ridiculous when compared with those incurred in the fighting between the Japanese and Russians in Manchuria, yet many of

HOME LIFE AMONG THE FILIPINOS

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the native insurgents were slain, and it became a matter of wonder why Aguinaldo and his followers persisted in keeping up the hopeless fight. Yet they did so, and it became necessary to reinforce our troops in the Philippines from time to time in order to make substantial progress.

It often happened that after the American forces had taken certain positions of the insurgents, who were sent scurrying from their defenses, our troops abandoned the captured locality and returned to their former positions, whereupon the Filipinos scrambled back to their places, and thus, in some cases, the same positions were captured more than once. To give the particulars of the fighting in the Philippines through the years 1899 and 1900 would be of slight interest, because of the sameness mentioned, and we shall therefore aim to describe in a general way the progress of the campaign in the islands.

MAJOR-GENERAL ELWELL S. OTIS

Major-General Elwell S. Otis succeeded General Merritt as military commander in the Philippines, General Arthur MacArthur was appointed commandant of Manila, and General George S. Anderson received a similar commission at Cavité. Aguinaldo, with headquarters at Bacoor, issued proclamations calling himself President of the Republic of the Philippines, and the residents were in constant dread of outrages by the lawless insurgents.

Aguinaldo's Pretensions

Considerable sympathy for Aguinaldo was expressed in the United States, it being argued that, since the islands had come into our possession as one of the results of the war with Spain, it was the duty of our administration to withdraw its forces and leave the Filipinos to form their own independent government. Some went further and spoke of Aguinaldo as leading a war for independence similar to our own against Great Britain in 1776, and it cannot be denied that the encouragement thus given in this country to the insurgents had much to do with the vigor and length of their resistance.

Sympathy for Filipinos

It was maintained by our administration, on the other hand, that our responsibility required us to secure a stable and well-ordered government in the islands before turning them over to the Filipinos; that such a fulfilment of international duty was due to other nations who had important interests in the Philippines, and if we failed in that respect we should be condemned in the eyes of the world.

Accordingly President McKinley appointed a commission to examine the pretensions of Aguinaldo, and, in the meantime, official recognition was refused to Agoncillo, the Filipino representative in Washington. Foreseeing an outbreak, General Otis selected three commissioners to confer with the same number named by Aguinaldo, the object being to secure a stable government. When the commissioners came together, the Filipino representatives would listen to nothing except absolute independence. They demanded that the American troops should be withdrawn immediately, but consented to the navy's remaining to protect foreigners.

The Joint Commission

In reply the American commissioners explained that, by the Treaty of Paris, Spain, who had been responsible to other Powers for the protection of life and property of resident citizens, was no longer responsible, and the transfer of the islands to the United States carried with it the transfer of the responsibilities of government. If our army and navy withdrew, the foreign Powers would consider the act as one of bad faith. If the army withdrew and the navy remained, the United States, in thus assuming responsibility for government without having a voice in its laws, might become involved in wars with other nations. All the autonomy the Filipinos proved themselves capable of maintaining was promised, but the native commissioners would listen to no compromise.

On the night of February 4, 1899, a collision occurred between the Filipinos east of Manila and the American guards. There can be no

Outbreak of War

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doubt that it was brought on purposely by the natives in order to force matters to an issue. Fighting rapidly extended along the whole line of occupation from Tondo to Malate. The Filipinos retreated from their trenches, leaving the suburbs of Manila and the waterworks of Santolan in the possession of the Americans.

Capture of Caloocan

On the 10th of February, after a sharp conflict in which the land and naval forces were engaged, Caloocan was occupied. Then General MacArthur advanced toward Malolos, where Aguinaldo had established his headquarters. From this place secret orders were issued that all foreigners in Manila should be assassinated; but the plot was discovered, and General Otis placed the city under martial law. The insurgents caused a considerable conflagration, but, rather curiously, the Filipino quarter was the only portion of the city that suffered injury.

A Vigorous Policy

By this time it had become apparent to President McKinley that the only way to secure permanent peace and a stable government was by a vigorous prosecution of the war. Malolos was captured and occupied by General MacArthur on the 31st of March, after severe fighting, whereupon Aguinaldo established his headquarters at San Fernando. MacArthur captured that town on the 5th of May, and Angeles on the 16th of August, whereupon Aguinaldo withdrew to San Isidro.

Lawton's Brilliant Campaign

General Lawton had seized Santa Cruz, some fifty miles southeast of Manila, on the 10th of April, together with a number of smaller towns. He advanced against San Isidro, and Aguinaldo retreated to Tarlac. Lawton, ever an intrepid and aggressive fighter, pressed on to Malolos, having traversed a hundred and twenty miles in twenty days, fought twenty-two engagements, and captured twenty-eight towns. Meanwhile the alert Filipinos had, by the middle of June, strengthened themselves at Paranaque, Zapota, Bacoor, and Imus, the capital of the province of Cavité. Lawton and Wheaton began a whirlwind campaign against these towns, captured them all, and drove the insurgents into the hills beyond.

Lawton's method of campaigning recalled his tireless pursuit of Geronimo over the plains of the Southwest. Aguinaldo was given no rest. Early in September he occupied Tarlac as his capital. At the opening of hostilities he had an army of 40,000 men, which, through desertions and losses by war, had dwindled to one fourth of that number. The Americans held Manila and the neighboring

country as far as San Isidro and Angeles on the north, Santa Cruz on the east, and Imus on the south.

Aguinaldo's influence was so weak in the islands south of Luzon that they accepted an American protectorate. Garrisons occupied the principal towns of Cebu, Negros, Mindanao, the Sulus, and Iloilo in Panay. The last-named port is next to Manila in importance. On August 17 the War Department issued orders for the enlistment of ten new regiments of volunteers for service in the Philippines, and the respective colonels were appointed.

New Regiments

On August 28 Colonel Bayless, of the Tennessee volunteers, including a portion of the Twenty-third Infantry, attacked the insurgent bandits in Cebu and drove them into the hills. Argogula, a bandit stronghold in Negros, was captured on the 31st of August by the Sixth Infantry under Lieutenant-Colonel Byrne, an engagement in which many prisoners were taken and a large number of the insurgents were killed and wounded.

On September 19 the insurgent leaders in Luzon asked for a conference with General Otis and offered to release their American prisoners of war. Some days later, fourteen such prisoners were set free at Angeles.

On September 28 Generals MacArthur and Wheeler captured Porac, a town eight miles northwest of Bacolor, in Luzon. On October 3 Lawton dispersed the Filipinos between Bacoor and Imus. There was a good deal of skirmishing and fighting throughout the month, and the insurgents were driven from Cavité, Bultos, and Novaleta, south of Manila. In an expedition up the Chiquita River, a branch of the Rio Grande, on October 21, Major Guy Howard was killed on the gunboat *Oceana*, and in the fighting on the 30th, near Laboa, Captain French was mortally wounded. General Young's column entered Cabanatuan, north of San Isidro, and Lawton advanced northward from that point, capturing Aligaa, Talavera, and Cobal. Colonel Bell, with the Thirty-sixth Volunteer Infantry and a troop of the Fourth Cavalry, cleared the country around Porac.

"Cleaning up" in Luzon

The fighting during the month of November, 1899, may be thus summarized: On the 5th two columns of MacArthur's division captured Magalang, northeast of Angeles; on the 6th three transports carrying 2,500 men under General Wheaton left Manila for Dagupan, on the western coast of Luzon; Colonel Bell took Mabalacat, which was occupied at once by MacArthur's troops; the cruiser *Charleston*

Wreck of the "Charleston"

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was wrecked on a reef on the northwest coast of Luzon; on the 11th MacArthur captured Bambau; on the 12th Colonel Bell occupied Tarlac, the Filipino camp, without opposition, Aguinaldo having escaped. Major John A. Logan, of the Thirty-third Volunteer Infantry, and six enlisted men, were killed near San Jacinto in a fight with the insurgents; on the 18th MacArthur, still advancing northward, occupied Gerona, Panique, and Movcada; on the 24th Bautista, the president of the Filipino Congress, surrendered himself to MacArthur; on the 28th Bayombong, in the province of Nueva Vizcaya, defended by 800 armed insurgents, surrendered to Lieutenant Monroe and 50 men of the Fourth Cavalry.

Major Logan Killed

The entire province of Cagayan, in the extreme northern end of Luzon, was surrendered on the 11th of December by General Tierona, the Filipino insurgent commander, to Captain McCalla of the *Newark*. On the 18th of the same month General Lawton was instantly killed, as related in the preceding chapter, and on Christmas Day General S. B. M. Young was appointed military governor of the province of Northwest Luzon, with headquarters at Vigan.

General Young Appointed Governor

On January 1, 1900, there was a general advance of the American troops in Southern Luzon, and Cabuyac, on the southern side of Laguna de Bay, was taken by two battalions of the Thirty-ninth Infantry. Lieutenant Gillmore and a party of Americans who had been held prisoners for a long time by the Filipinos arrived at Manila on January 7. Five days later General Otis reported that all of Cavité province was occupied by General Wheaton's command.

On the 8th of January, 1900, our troops in the Philippines numbered 61,862 officers and men, increased a few days later by the arrival of a transport with 1,400 men. General Otis reported that order had been generally established in the northern part of the island. The military campaign was transferred to the region south of Manila, where Generals Schwan, Wheaton, and Bates had been active. The rebellion seemed to be confined to the people of the Tagal race, and outside of Luzon order rapidly took the place of disorder, though guerrilla warfare continued for a time.

Order Re-established

During these stirring movements Aguinaldo, with his cap of invisibility, was skulking here and there, always eluding our forces, who more than once were close upon his heels, regardless of the fact that his wife fell into the hands of the Americans. No more signals were heard from the golden whistle which he carried. It is probable that

he was waiting for the United States to offer him a bribe, as Spain was accustomed to do, but our countrymen had no intention of dealing in that manner with the nuisance. Most of the other insurgent chiefs had taken to their heels or gone over to the Americans. Dr. Schurman, of Cornell, a competent authority, wrote: "Our armies fighting now in Northern Luzon will soon be required only to keep down bandits."

The district over which General Young was appointed governor included seven provinces of Northwestern Luzon, where he busied himself in setting up civil governments, appointing collectors of customs and of internal revenue, and in opening customhouses, while Colonel Hood was similarly engaged in the three northern provinces. General Bates sailed from Manila for Zamboanga, in Mindanao, to open a customhouse at that port and a number of others in Mindanao and in the Sulu archipelago. Thus with the opening of the new year it could be said that the rebellion was on its last legs and permanent peace was in sight.

Rebellion on its Last Legs

Perhaps the best summary of the situation in the Philippines was given by General Wheeler in his letter to the War Department resigning his commission as an officer of the volunteer army. Two causes led to such resignation: he felt that his government had no further need of his services, and he therefore wished to resume his seat in Congress, to which he had been elected from Alabama. His letter was written toward the close of 1899 from Paniqui, island of Luzon, and said:

"The insurgent government is virtually destroyed. Aguinaldo is a fugitive in the northern provinces; his Cabinet and Congress are scattered. The president of the Filipino Congress is here, and from what he says I think it will be impossible for their Congress ever to reconvene. The various commands of the insurgent generals are reduced to mere skeletons and fly before us so fast that it is almost impossible to get within gun range."

The Enemy on the Run

We have attempted to render a tribute in the preceding pages to that superb soldier and patriot, General Lawton, and it is but proper that brief mention should be here made of another valiant officer who gave his life to his country. General Guy V. Henry was one of the finest men ever given by West Point to the country. His father was an excellent officer of the regular army, and his son, born in the Indian Territory in 1839, was graduated from the Military Academy

General Guy V. Henry

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within a few weeks after the firing upon Fort Sumter. He entered the war as lieutenant of the First Artillery, and by his valor and skill won the rank of colonel in the autumn of 1863. He was mentioned several times for conspicuous gallantry, and at the close of the war was made brevet brigadier-general of volunteers and brevet colonel of regulars. The times of peace, however, make promotion slow, and it was not until 1897 that General Henry became a colonel.

He entered the cavalry arm and won the reputation of being one of the best Indian fighters in the army. That dangerous and trying work was performed brilliantly on the scorching plains of Arizona and among the arctic blasts of Dakota and the far north. In one of his many engagements he lost an eye and was badly wounded in the face. It is on record that with three troops of his regiment, the Ninth Cavalry, he rode a distance of one hundred and eighteen miles in about twenty-four hours, an exploit which, in its way, has never been surpassed.

A Cavalry Exploit

General Henry commanded a brigade in General Miles's Puerto Rico campaign, and subsequently went to Santiago, but the fighting was over when he arrived. After holding the military command of the Ponce district for several months he was made governor-general to succeed General Brooke. His health broke down, and in May, 1899, he was obliged to yield his office to General Davis and return home. His administration as governor was marked by tact, wisdom, and fine ability. He won the good will of the natives by his love of justice and his unselfish devotion to the important trusts placed in his hands.

For the first time in his long and adventurous career he secured a real vacation. He was soon ready, however, for active work again. In October he received news of his appointment to the command of the Department of the Missouri, with headquarters at Omaha. When almost ready to start he was seized with pneumonia and died October 27. Three days later he was buried with military honors at the national cemetery at Arlington.

Death

The wonderful discoveries already made in electrical science, and the certainty that we are on the edge of still more amazing ones, leave little doubt that the twentieth century will see the "Age of Steam" supplanted by the "Age of Electricity." When the electromagnetic telegraph was invented by Professor Morse, as related in another part of this work, the whole world was startled and believed

that ingenuity and invention could go no further in that direction. But now a successful means of telegraphing without the use of wires has been found. Numerous tests of Signor Marconi's system have been made, and its practicability has been established beyond question. During the yacht races for the *America's* cup, in the autumn of 1899, apparatus was installed on the steamer *Ponce* and at the Navesink Highlands. The first message sent by wireless telegraphy over a considerable distance in this country was flashed between the stations on September 29, during the naval parade in honor of Admiral Dewey. The result was perfect, even when the *Ponce* was as far up the North River as 125th Street. A less expensive apparatus for wireless telegraphy was tested by the Lighthouse Department at Tompkinsville, Staten Island, August 15, 1899. It is the invention of W. J. Clark and covered a distance of three and a half miles, but beyond that the signals were not so clear. Many other experiments, both in this country and in Europe, have placed the success of this astounding invention beyond all possible doubt. Indeed, wireless telegraphy is coming into general use. Steamers communicate with one another in crossing the ocean and the passengers exchange messages with their friends on shore. During the war between Japan and Russia, when the DeForest system was employed, a message was sent from outside Chemulpo, over 210 sea miles, which was partly broken by the islands of the Prince Imperial Archipelago, and an answer was received to the same. The operators were able to transmit and receive from twenty to thirty words a minute.

Wireless Telegraphy

Secretary Hay, in January, 1900, gained an important diplomatic triumph in the Far Eastern question. In the general scramble of the great Powers for the possession of territory in China, in the form of treaty ports or "spheres of influence," there was fear on the part of the United States that our commercial privileges would be injuriously affected. The informal assurances given from time to time by the several Powers did not satisfy Mr. Hay, who requested Great Britain, Germany, France, Italy, and Japan to express in written, unequivocal language that the treaty rights of the United States with China would not be affected by the new treaties entered into by them with China. Every one of the five Powers named gave such assurances, and thus the "open door" with China has been secured beyond recall.

The "Open Door" with China

No such congratulation, however, attaches to the treaty that was proposed with Great Britain regarding the building of a canal across the Central American Isthmus, to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

The Nicaragua Canal

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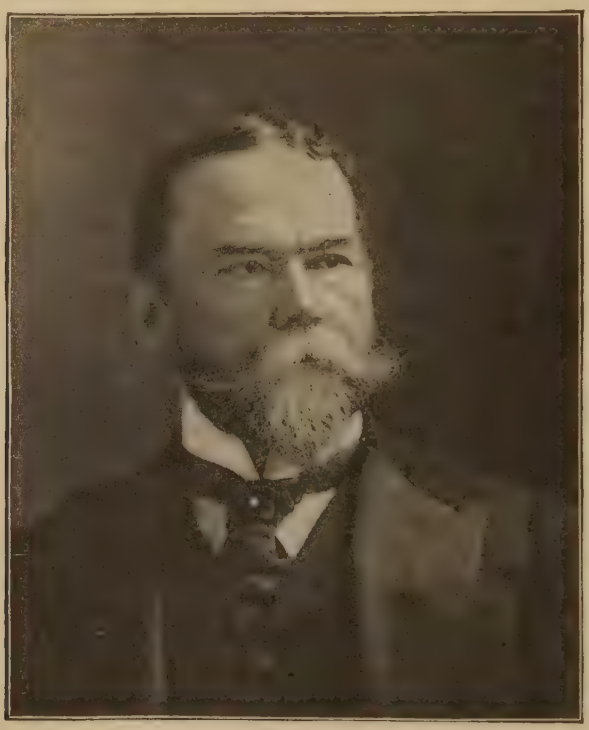
On April 19, 1850, Mr. John M. Clayton, then our Secretary of State, and Mr. Henry Lytton Bulwer, English Minister at Washington, signed a treaty in which so much interest has lately been aroused that the full purport of the document should be understood. This treaty consisted of nine articles, which may be thus summarized:



HON. JOHN HAY, SECRETARY OF STATE

1. The United States and Great Britain were forbidden to assume exclusive control of the ship canal contemplated, nor could they fortify it or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America.

2. In case of war between Great Britain and the United States, the respective vessels should be exempt from molestation.

The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty

3. The parties engaged in building the canal should be protected while so employed.

4. The two governments were to use their influence with other governments to facilitate the construction of the canal.

5. The contracting parties were to guarantee the neutrality of the canal, so that it should be forever open and free except under certain specified conditions.

6. Other friendly Powers were to be invited to join on equal terms in the enterprise.

7. A year was given to such parties as might be engaged in constructing the canal to prove their ability to continue the same

8. The same protection was provided for the building of other practicable communication by railway or canal across the isthmus.

9. Ratifications of the treaty were to be exchanged within six months from April 19, 1850.

It will be noted that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was framed on the supposition that the canal was to be built at once. Furthermore, the treaty was to be an international compact, but the only Powers which signed it were Great Britain and the United States. The expectation was that European capital under private auspices would be digging the canal before the end of the first year, nor did anyone in this country consider the canal as of necessity under the sole political control of the United States.

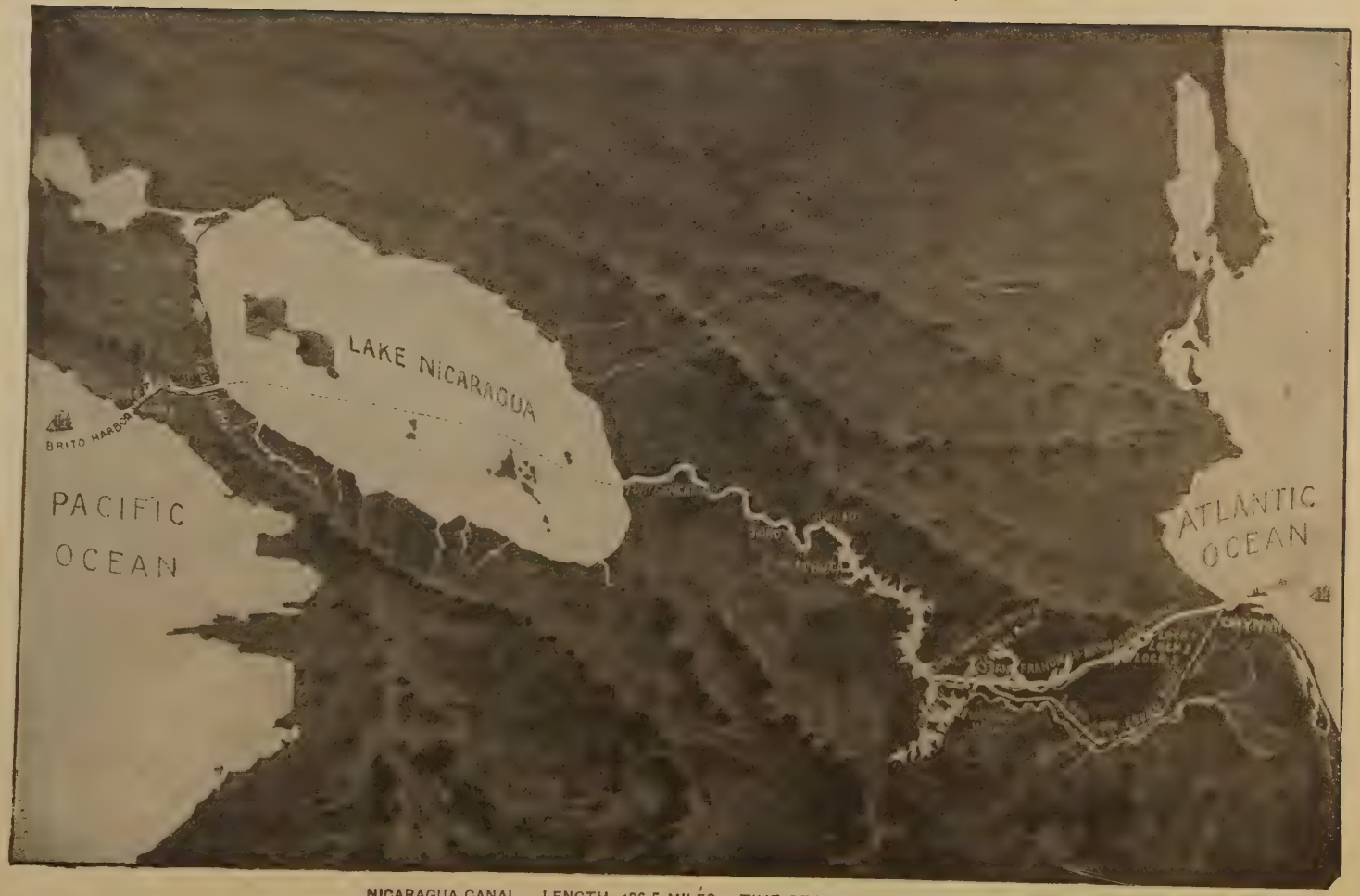
No canal, however, was dug, and when the question of the construction of one by our own government arose the important question to be settled was whether the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was still in force. If it were, then we were estopped from the exclusive control of the canal, and, in the event of war, we were forbidden to close or fortify it for our own protection, even though we had paid every dollar involved in the construction of the canal.

Interpretation of Treaties

Now the foremost international authorities agree that in interpreting old treaties nations must consider mutual obligations and equities. Since the treaty named referred to a contemplated event which never occurred (the building of the canal), its provisions are dead and have been dead for nearly half a century. Moreover, it was signed by a minority of the Powers that it was intended should be directly interested. In other words, a quorum was never present to do business, and the minority adjourned *sine die* a long time ago.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty referred strictly to a state of affairs existing at that time, while its provisions have been repeatedly disregarded by Great Britain and have been treated as obsolete by our own government. Still further, both England and the highest American legal authorities have conceded for a long time that nothing in the treaty referred to stands in the way of the United States constructing the Nicaragua Canal whenever ready to do so.

In January, 1900, committees of both houses of Congress made unanimous reports favoring the prompt building of the canal by the United States government, to which title was to be secured by cessions from Nicaragua and Costa Rica. The plan in view treated the canal as a part of the navigable waters of the United States. Its



NICARAGUA CANAL. LENGTH, 186.5 MILES. TIME OF TRANSIT, 33 HOURS.

value to us would be almost beyond estimate, for it would connect the Atlantic and Pacific seaboards, saving several thousand miles in communication between the oceans and fully doubling the effectiveness of the navy.

The wise statesmanship of this act and its far-reaching good to us were so apparent that it is improbable that a single voice would be raised or a single vote recorded against it. When, however, everything was going smoothly, the announcement was made that Secretary Hay on the part of the United States, and Lord Pauncefote on behalf of Great Britain, had signed a treaty which bound the United States never to fortify its own canal or use it in time of war to accomplish the very object the country had in view in constructing the canal.

The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty

It is not necessary to quote this remarkable treaty in full, since its import can be given in a few words. It provides that the United States shall pay all the expense of building the canal, but it shall be for the equal benefit of the commerce of all nations and shall be neutralized by the guarantee of the leading commercial Powers of the world. In plain language, Mr. Hay's plan asked the European Powers to take political control of a canal built on the American continent by the United States government.

Now, self-preservation is the first law of nature, and nothing can be more certain than that in the event of war with any foreign nation we should make the best possible use of the canal for our own interests. The United States would never consent to the tying of its hands in deference to that shortsighted spirit of self-renunciation which led our officials to anticipate by a hundred years, more or less, the grand epoch when all nations shall disarm and wage war no more.

One reason why Japan went to war with China was to learn whether she was strong enough to repudiate her vexatious commercial foreign treaties which bound her hand and foot. She found out that she had the power to repudiate them, and did so, and all the world conceded that she did right.

Repudiation of Treaties

When a man gives a promissory note it is all-important in law that it shall be "for value received." There is not the shadow of any substantial obligation on the part of the United States behind the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and, since nothing has been received, there is nothing to pay. Upon no one point are international authorities more unanimously agreed than that, when treaties are signed that are

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temporary in their nature, their form of perpetuity in phrasing shall be disregarded when the temporary circumstances that brought such treaties into existence are past. New conditions demand new treatment of the situation.

Duty of the United States

The simple duty of the United States — and there can be no diversity of sentiment on this point, nor is there the least unfriendliness to Great Britain, which could not deny the justice of our position — was to ask that government formally to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and then for the United States to construct the canal and retain exclusive control over it. Concessions ought to have been secured long ago from Nicaragua and Costa Rica that would have given us complete sovereignty over the necessary strip of territory, after which our assurances to Great Britain would have won her hearty agreement to waive the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and to give her moral support to a project that could not fail to be of vast benefit to her interests.

Let us look a little more closely into the obnoxious provisions of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. It was announced at first that it abrogated the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but, instead of doing so, it simply modifies it, thereby acknowledging its present force and validity and reversing the judgment of the predecessors of Mr. Hay, who held that the present binding character of the old treaty was removed by the persistent violation of its terms by Great Britain. The new treaty does not abrogate the provision forbidding England to exercise dominion over the Mosquito Coast or any part of Central America. This is the very ground upon which Mr. Hay's predecessors have based their contention and the American case. Every obstacle against exclusive American control is retained. We should be simply toll-collector and policeman, without a weapon with which to maintain that position. In case of war we should be obliged to allow the ships of the enemy to pass through the canal on their paying the regular toll, and as to our own ships we should be forced to hold them a prescribed time while those of the enemy were ravaging our coast cities and working general destruction. Finally, by welcoming foreign control of such important interests on the American continent, we should strike a fatal blow at the Monroe Doctrine, one of the dearest heritages from the "Golden Age" of our politics.

Violating the Monroe Doctrine

It will be observed that one of the provisions of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty forbade Great Britain to assume sovereignty over any

of the Central American states. To-day she exercises absolute sovereignty over Belize, or British Honduras, and, since 1850, the boundaries of the Belize settlement, now changed into a Crown Colony, have been greatly extended at the expense of the neighboring republics. What is clearer than that, since Great Britain has thus openly violated one of the important provisions of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the same is voidable at the pleasure of the United States? Such was the conclusion of Mr. Frelinghuysen, and such was the position taken by the committee which unanimously reported the Nicaragua Canal bill to the Senate.

As the full meaning of the new treaty became known, a wave of opposition spread through the country against its confirmation by the Senate. The leading journals and many prominent citizens condemned it so strongly that Congress could not close its ears to the appeals. Senator Davis, of Minnesota, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, prepared an amendment which was accepted, and which gave to the United States practical control of the canal; and the bill with this amendment was reported to the Senate, March 9, 1900, by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations.

The Davis Amendment

The Presidential election of 1900 resembled that of 1896, in the fact that the real contest lay between the same leaders, and the result was a second Republican victory. The Republican convention met in Philadelphia on June 19, 20, and 21. The platform was adopted on the 20th, and the following day President McKinley was renominated. The second place on the ticket was given to Governor Theodore Roosevelt, in place of Garret A. Hobart, deceased. The platform declared in favor of gold as the single standard; commended the administration of President McKinley; denounced the Democracy; called for the honest co-operation of capital to meet new business methods; condemned all conspiracies and combinations intended to restrict business, to create monopolies, to limit production or to control prices, and favored legislation that would restrain and prevent all such abuses. Protection and reciprocity were advocated, as well as a restriction of the immigration of cheap labor. The extension of educational facilities to children was specially recommended, and the enactment of legislation that would restore to the United States their former place among the ocean trade-carrying nations of the world. The Republican policy of civil service was commended; also move-

The Presidential Election of 1900

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ments looking to a permanent improvement of the roads and highways of the country; the reclamation of the arid lands in the West, reserving the control of the distribution of water to the respective States and Territories, and the early admission to Statehood of the Territories of New Mexico, Arizona, and Oklahoma. A reduction of war taxes was favored; the construction, ownership and control of an Isthmian canal was earnestly commended; also the creation of a Department of Commerce and Industries; the reorganization of the consular system, and, finally, the course of the Government in regard to the Philippines was warmly commended.

Epitome of the Republican Platform

The Democratic National Convention was held in Kansas City, opening July 4th. William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, was the nominee for President, with Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois, for Vice-President. Previous to their nomination, the platform was adopted on July 5th. It declared "Imperialism" the paramount issue, and strongly condemned the policy of the administration in the Philippines. The Porto Rico law was denounced; trusts were pronounced indefensible and intolerable, and unceasing warfare was proclaimed against private monopoly in every form. Amendments to the tariff laws were called for; the Dingley measure was condemned, and an enlargement of the Interstate Commerce law demanded, such as will enable the commission to protect individuals and communities from discriminations and the public from unjust transportation rates.

The Democratic Convention

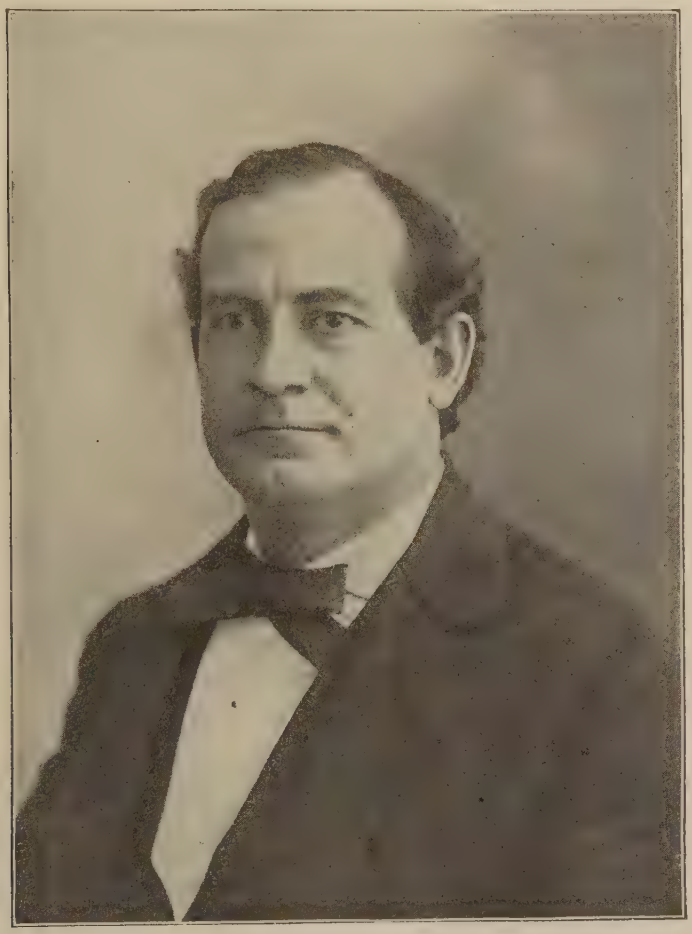
Through the insistence of Mr. Bryan and against the views of many prominent Democrats, the "free silver at 16 to 1" plank in the platform of 1896 was reaffirmed. Other points in the declaration of principles were the advocacy of the direct election of the United States Senators; opposition to "government by injunction"; favoring the creation of a Department of Labor; liberal pensions to the war veterans; the construction and control of an Isthmian canal; condemnation of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, as well as the course of the Republicans in not admitting Arizona, New Mexico and Oklahoma to Statehood. Home rule was favored for Alaska and Porto Rico. Another plank called for the irrigation of the arid lands of the West, and the continued exclusion of the Chinese. All alliance with England was denounced, and a demand made for the repeal of the war taxes.

Epitome of the Democratic Platform

The other Presidential nominations were as follows:

Silver Republicans.—William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, and Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois.

Populists.— William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, and Charles A. Towne,



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

of Minnesota. Mr. Towne subsequently withdrew in favor of Mr. Stevenson.

Other Presidential Tickets

Middle-of-the-Road Populists.— Wharton Barker, of Pennsylvania, and Ignatius Donnelly, of Minnesota.

Prohibitionists.— John G. Woolley, of Illinois, and Henry B. Metcalf, of Rhode Island.

THE GALVESTON HORROR. SCENE ON TWELFTH STREET AFTER THE STORM

Socialist Labor.— Job Harriman, of California, and Max S. Hayes, of Ohio.

Social Democrats.—Eugene V. Debs, of Indiana, and Job Harriman, of California.

De Leon Socialists.— Joseph F. Malloney, of Massachusetts, and Valentine Remmill, of Pennsylvania.

United Christians.— Dr. S. C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, and John G. Woolley, of Illinois.

As already stated, the real struggle was between the Republicans and Democrats. Mr. Bryan threw the same energy into the campaign as before, and Mr. Roosevelt was no less aggressive for the ticket on which he was the second nominee. The canvass increased in warmth and vigor as election day approached, with the result of an overwhelming majority for the Republican ticket, both in the Electoral College and the popular vote. Mr. McKinley received 292 electoral votes against 155 for Mr. Bryan, while his plurality in the popular vote amounted to the unprecedented aggregate of 877,600, exceeding that of 1896 by 274,096 votes.

The Galveston Disaster

The most appalling calamity in the history of our country befell the city of Galveston, Texas, on the morning of Saturday, September 8, 1900, when, in the twinkling of an eye, as may be said, one-sixth of the population were killed, thousands of houses demolished, industries wrecked, and more than 15,000 of the citizens made absolutely destitute. It was a stupendous plunge from magnificent wealth to woeful penury. At midnight, September 7, Galveston, with the single exception of Providence, R. I., was the wealthiest city in the Union, according to population. A few hours later, it was the poorest.

History of Galveston

Galveston stands on the eastern end of a beautiful, low-lying island, some thirty miles long, and six or seven miles wide, but barely two miles in width where the city is built. It is the natural outlet of the trade of Texas, is its chief seaport, and has as a tributary an immense area of the most productive section of the Union. The State contains 274,000 square miles and produces one-third of the cotton of the United States. The city has an extensive trade in grain, lumber, wood, live stock, petroleum, hides and other products. In 1850, Texas, with a population of 250,000, was the twenty-seventh among the States. A half century later, with an estimated population of 3,600,000, it had become the fifth, and is rapidly growing, it is

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claimed, on good authority, that it could support a population of 50,000,000 in comfort. Galveston is the nearest port to the grain belt of the trans-Mississippi region, and, before the storm, was the second grain-shipping port of the country. For the year ending August 31, 1900, this was valued at $86,376,486, and the total foreign and coastwise business was $219,646,442.

Other Warnings

Galveston had received warning more than once of its peril. The whole island was flooded in 1857, and the waters of the Gulf and Bay meeting, completely submerged the little town. Ten years later it was again inundated. Mechanic Street, the principal business thoroughfare, contained six feet of water, but the city caught only the edge of the terrific storm of that year. In June and in September, 1871, it was overflowed, the waters of the latter storm coming from the Gulf and those of the former from the Bay. There were destructive floods again in October, 1873, in September, 1875, and in December, 1877. The complete destruction of Galveston had been frequently predicted.

Gathering of the Storm

Early in the morning of September 8, 1900, it was known that a severe storm was brewing. It had swept with tremendous force over New Orleans and gathered fury as it careered down the Texas littoral. At midday the wind was almost a hurricane; a few hours later it became an unmistakable one. At six o'clock the full force of the tempest broke over the doomed city. Wind and waves joined in their awful work, and what one spared the other annihilated. It was wind and rain at first, and then from the depths of the Gulf, with a roar that drowned the screaming gale, rushed a prodigious tidal wave, like that which, in 1755, buried the city of Lisbon. Coming from the east, it bore down upon the low, flat sea front with nothing to check or moderate its fury. Rolling over Galveston, where, all lights having been extinguished, everything was in total darkness, it crushed the city like an avalanche.

Bodies Buried at Sea

At first it was believed that Galveston, with its 38,000 inhabitants, was wiped out, but such catastrophes are rare. Incoming vessels encountered drifting corpses a hundred miles from shore, and scores of bodies were found entangled among the weeds and brushwood, seven miles inland. Necessity compelled the carrying of hundreds of these bodies out to sea for burial, but many were washed back again, whereupon they were gathered and burned; morgues were improvised, but deaths were so numerous that identification soon became

impossible. All able-bodied men, no matter what their station and calling, were forced to help in the work of disposing of the dead and clearing up the city, for in no other way could a virulent pestilence be averted.

Amid the grief of surviving relatives and the general consternation, martial law was declared, and Adjutant-General Scurry was placed in charge of the city. Enough food had been saved to stave off famine

VIEW ON NINETEENTH STREET AFTER THE STORM, GALVESTON

until relief arrived. Distribution warehouses were established in each ward, and the people displayed a heroism never surpassed. While the exact number of deaths will never be known, probably between 6,000 and 7,000 perished in Galveston alone, and, including those of isolated villages and along the coast line, the fatalities could not have been much less than 10,000.

Martial Law Prevailed

Hardly had the news of this calamity been telegraphed to the world when the wires began throbbing with messages of sympathy and with orders for relief, while railway trains and swift steamers, laden with provisions and supplies, hurried southward. Help came from all parts of the Union, for no hearts are quicker than those of Americans to answer the call of distress. Governor Sayers and his

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assistants showed herculean energy in meeting the crisis and in securing, by every means possible, the comfort and safety of the survivors. The Governor's message to the citizens of New York, who had been prompt and liberal in their contributions, was typical of Texan gratitude to the other cities, towns, villages, and hamlets, which had helped so nobly the desolated city: "As long as we live, as long as our children live, and as long as our children's children live, never will we forget your kindness and the confidence you have reposed in the people of Galveston."

Great Manifestations of Sympathy

What more graphic picture can be drawn of the woeful calamity than that of Mayor Jones, who, in the latter part of September, in his appeal for relief, after declaring that 6,000 persons were drowned and that the property loss was $30,000,000, said:

"Along the beach front upward of 2,600 houses by actual map count, are totally destroyed. Of these not a timber remains upon the original site, and the wreckage constitutes the embankment of debris extending along the entire beach from three or four blocks inward for about three miles, the removal of which will cost $750,000 to $1,000,000. From this debris there are still daily uncovered by the workmen now systematically employed, from thirty to fifty bodies which are burned or buried on the spot. Moreover, we estimate that 97½ per cent. of the remaining houses throughout the city were damaged in greater or less degree. On the removal of the debris, in the clearing of the streets, to make temporary repairs of houses, in distributing supplies and in the general work of restoration, our entire citizenship are engaged, without compensation."

Loss in Property Values

Miss Clara Barton, in commending the appeal, said:

"Could the people of our generous country see as I have seen in its dreadful reality the desolation and the destruction of homes by thousands, the overwhelming bereavement in the loss of near and dear ones, and the utter helplessness that confronts those remaining, the appeal of Mayor Jones for continued help would meet with such a response as no other calamity has ever known."

So complete was the destruction of the city that many thought it wise to abandon all thought of rebuilding Galveston, but this feeling soon gave way to the determination to erect upon the ruins a greater and more enduring city, that should laugh at the rage of the elements. The favoring conditions already pointed out still exist, and always will exist. The linear front of Galveston channel, available for

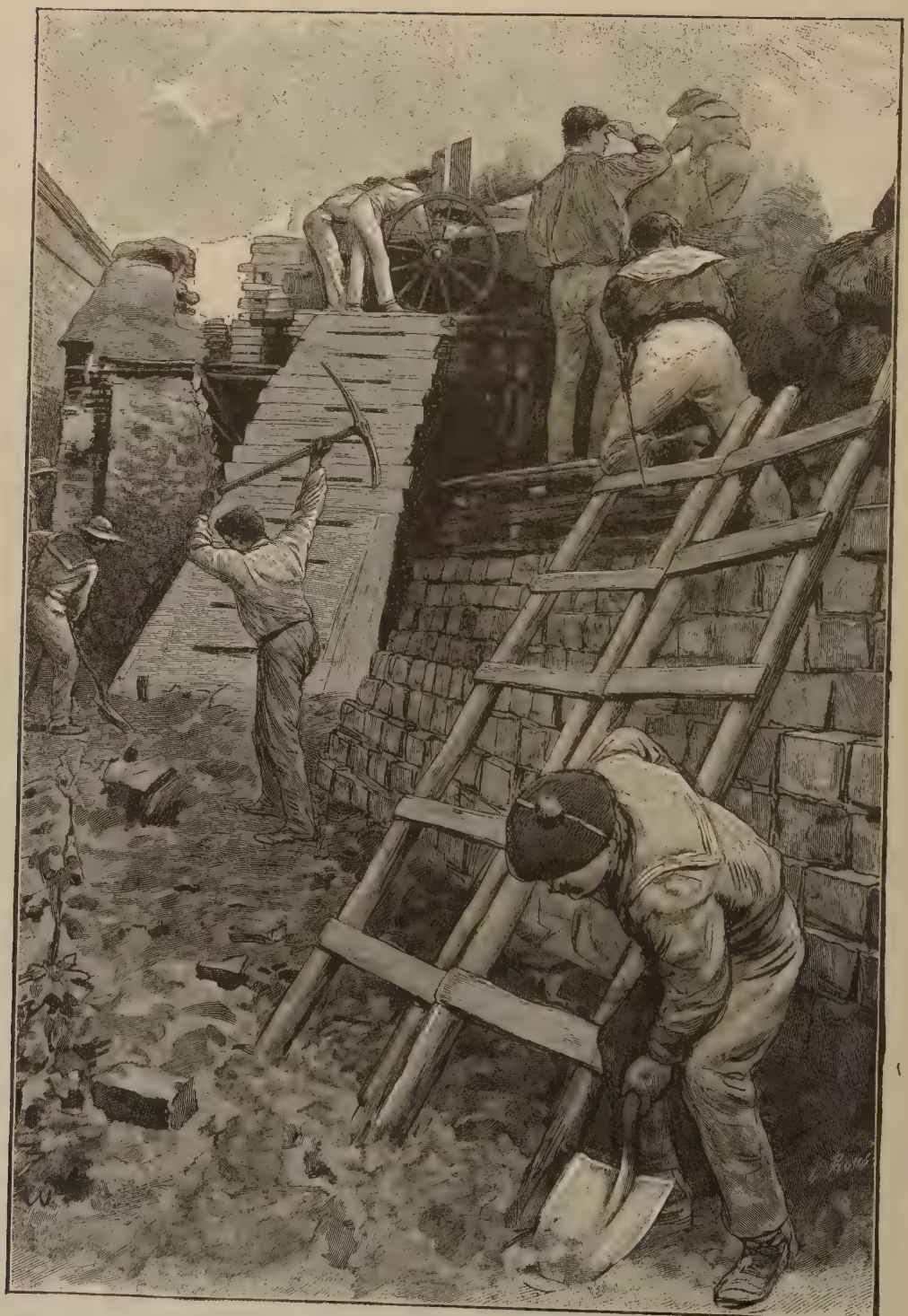
Looking to the Future

wharfing purposes, is about nine and one-half miles in extent, and including the three miles of Pelican flats, exceeds that of New York city. The storm proved that the island is permanent. Colonel H. M. Roberts, Chief of the United States Corps of Engineers, says that a sea-wall thirteen miles long will give absolute protection against tidal waves. But this would be enormously costly, and others think that a breakwater, seven miles long, which could be built for about a million dollars, would afford complete safety. At any rate the Galveston of the future is sure to surpass in strength, security and grandeur the city that was so nearly annihilated in September, 1900.

During the summer of 1900 the attention of the civilized world was drawn anxiously toward China, in consequence of what was known as the "Boxer" uprising in that country. The "Boxers" represented the national element of the empire, and constituted so large a part of the population that at one time it seemed as if the established government would be overturned. The rebellion spread over a great part of the country, and was led by some of the most influential men in the empire. At their head was Prince Tuan, an uncle of the reigning monarch. The Dowager Empress also manifested strong sympathies with the national movement, and throughout the excitement and the subsequent military operations she retained control of the government with a strong hand and held the Emperor virtually a prisoner in her possession.

The War in China

The uprising was the result of an intense anti-foreign sentiment, of many years' growth, but greatly embittered during recent times by the dread of a division of the empire among foreign powers and the overthrow of native rule and institutions. The "Boxers" were in fact Chinese patriots, devoted to the institutions of their people; but they went about their operations in a barbarous and cruel manner, which brought down upon them the just condemnation of the civilized world. There was likewise a deepseated and almost universal hatred of foreign missionaries and their native converts, growing out of the efforts of the former to supplant the ancient religion and moral precepts of Confucius with those of Christianity. Hundreds of missionaries, as well as native Christians, were barbarously tortured and massacred. These outrages were not confined to the men, but included many women and children; and in numerous instances the tortures inflicted on these helpless victims were so brutal as to exceed the power of language to describe.



BUILDING THE FORTIFICATION AT PEKING.

At length, about the last of May, the rebellion culminated in the murder of a Japanese secretary of legation and the German Minister at Peking, and an attack by the "Boxers" on the foreign legations in that city. The imperial troops participated in these outrages. For nearly three months the ministers and their families were subjected to a state of siege by the infuriated natives, and were protected only by a small body of legation guards. Day and night throughout this entire period the "Boxers" and the imperial troops kept up an almost continuous cannonade of the legations; while numerous assaults were made upon the works which the inmates had improvised. So great was the dread of torture in case of capture that the foreigners deliberately prepared themselves in that event to kill their own families and then commit suicide.

Murder of the German Minister

Amazed and horrified at the situation, all the foreign powers now united in a general movement for the relief of their people. Fleets hastily gathered in Chinese waters, and large bodies of troops were hurried toward the points of danger. At Taku the Chinese resisted the landing of foreign soldiers, which necessitated the bombardment of the forts. These were reduced and captured on the 17th of June. The allies now landed their troops and prepared to march against Peking. The nations participating in the movement were the Americans, Japanese, British, Germans, French, Austrians, and Italians, and their combined forces amounted to about 30,000 men.

Capture of Tientsin and Peking

The port of Tientsin was stormed and captured July 13–14, with a loss of 800 killed and wounded. Among the former was the gallant Colonel Liscum of the American contingent. A forced march for Peking was now inaugurated, and after several battles of considerable magnitude on the way, in which the allies displayed the most amazing fortitude and daring, the troops entered Peking and relieved the legationers on the 14th of August.*

* The fighting before Tientsin was of the most desperate character, and it was there that Colonel Liscum and eighteen of his men were killed, besides seventy-five of the Ninth who were wounded. Major L. W. Waller, of the U. S. Marine Corps, states in his official report:

"Our men marched ninety-seven miles in the five days, fighting all the way. They have lived on about one meal a day for six days, but have been cheerful and willing always. They have gained the highest praise from all forces present and have earned my love and confidence.

"I have earnestly to recommend to your notice for such reward as you may deem proper the following officers: Lieutenant S. D. Butler, for the admirable conduct of his men in all the fights of the week, for saving a wounded man at the risk of his life and

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DEATH OF COLONEL LISCUM AT TIENTSIN

An incident connected with the death of Colonel Liscum forcibly illustrates the gallantry of the American soldier, as well as the good-fellowship that exists between the officers and privates. Sergeant Edward Gorman, of the Ninth Infantry, was color-sergeant of that regiment in the battle of Tientsin. In the final charge on the Chinese works Gorman fell desperately wounded. Liscum was near him at the time, and, gently taking the standard from the grasp of the prostrate soldier, he hoisted it and pressed on to the front, to fall himself, mortally wounded, a few minutes later.

The following spring, Sergeant Gorman having sufficiently recovered to bear removal, was brought across the sea to San Francisco, and lodged in the Government hospital at Presidio. There he graphically related the incident of his own wounding and the heroic death of his beloved Colonel. Said he: "I thought a house had fallen on me when I was struck. A bullet entered my left knee, another my thigh, and another cut a furrow across my stomach. Colonel Liscum, who was a few feet ahead of me, came back and asked: 'Are you badly hurt, old man?' On my assuring him that I would pull through, he ordered the men to carry me to cover, and then grabbing up the flag he started on a run to the head of the regiment. I saw him fall just as the men picked me up. While we were going toward shelter one of my bearers was killed and the other shot in the head. All day long I lay out in the hot sun, beside Major Regan, and at night they took us both off the field."

Before the beginning of the Chinese war Sergeant Gorman had won a certificate of merit in the Philippines, and he is regarded as one of the most daring and reliable non-commissioned officers in the gallant Ninth.

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under a very heavy fire; Lieutenant A. E. Harding, for conspicuous gallantry in action, for saving wounded at the risk of his life under a heavy fire; Second-Lieutenant W. L. Jolly, for the same risk and for leading a fine charge over the parapets in the face of a heavy fire; First-Lieutenant Henry Leonard, for saving life under fire and for admirable control and direction of the fire; First-Lieutenant Powell, for working and managing the Colt gun under a fierce fire and without support, after the crew had been shot down; First-Lieutenant Wynne, for his steadfast courage and encouragement of his men."

General A. R. F. Dorward, the commander of the British forces, in referring to the same incidents, used the most complimentary words, expressing his deep regret that Lieutenant Butler was wounded while engaged in his brave work, though not seriously, but Lieutenant Leonard was dangerously hurt while carrying the wounded Butler out of the firing line.

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Prolonged negotiations for peace and compensation followed the capture of Peking, and a settlement was finally reached in February of 1901, practically on the basis outlined by President McKinley in his message to Congress of the previous December, expressed in these words:

"The policy of the Government of the United States is to seek a solution which may bring about permanent safety and peace to China, preserve Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protect all rights guaranteed to friendly Powers by treaty and international law, and safeguard for the world the principle of equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese Empire."

Punishment of the "Boxers"

It was also stipulated that the prominent leaders of the "Boxer" movement should be punished in the following manner:

Gen. Tung Fu Sian, to be degraded and deprived of his rank; Prince Tuan and Duke Lan, to be disgraced and exiled; Prince Chuang, Ying Lien, and Chao Shu Chiao, to commit suicide; and Hsu Chen Yu, Yu Hsien, and Ki Hain, to be beheaded.

In compliance with this agreement Hsu Chen Yu and Ki Hain were decapitated in Pekin, February 20, 1901, on the spot where four members of the Chinese foreign office had been put to death for favoring foreigners. Those condemned to die by their own hands executed the sentence upon themselves within the time specified.

Death of Queen Victoria

On Tuesday, January 22, 1901, occurred the death of Queen Victoria, of England, after the longest reign in European annals. She was universally loved for her many excellent qualities as a woman and mother, and in this particular all the nations of Christendom united in tokens of esteem. She was succeeded by her son, Albert Edward, formerly Prince of Wales, under the title of Edward VII.

Affairs in the Philippines

The opening of the twentieth century found the war in the Philippines still progressing, although peace had been restored in Manila and the seacoast towns. In March of 1900 the President appointed a Civil Commission, composed of William H. Taft, of Ohio, President; Professor Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan; Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee; Henry C. Ide, of Vermont, and Professor Bernard Moses, of California, to "continue and perfect the work of organizing and establishing civil government already commenced by the military authorities, subject in all respects to any laws which Congress may hereafter enact." The Commissioners reached Manila in April, and on August

21, submitted a preliminary report, showing the good effects of returning order were felt. General Otis was relieved, at his own request, on April 7, and was succeeded by General MacArthur as Military Governor. On June 21, the latter issued a proclamation of amnesty to the Filipinos, of which, however, only partial advantage was taken by the natives whom it was designed to reach.

The Hall of Fame

"The Hall of Fame for Great Americans" is the gift of Miss Helen M. Gould, from whom the Council of New York University, on March 5, 1900, voted to accept $100,000, the donor's name being on the side. The building which was erected is semi-circular in form 506 feet long, 170 feet high and 15 feet wide. The panels are 150 in number, each 2 by 8 feet, and are designed to contain the names of Americans considered the greatest in their respective fields.

CAMPAIGNING IN THE PHILIPPINES

The rules allow only persons born on what is now American territory and who have been dead ten or more years to be chosen, and they must be elected from the following classes of citizens: Authors and editors, business men, educators, inventors, missionaries and explorers, philanthropists and reformers, preachers and theologians, scientists, engineers and architects, lawyers and judges, musicians, painters and sculptors, physicians and surgeons, rulers and statesmen, soldiers and sailors, distinguished men and women outside the foregoing fifteen classes. Fifty names were to be inscribed on the tablets at first, and five added every fifth year thereafter, until the year 2000, when the whole number of inscriptions will be completed.

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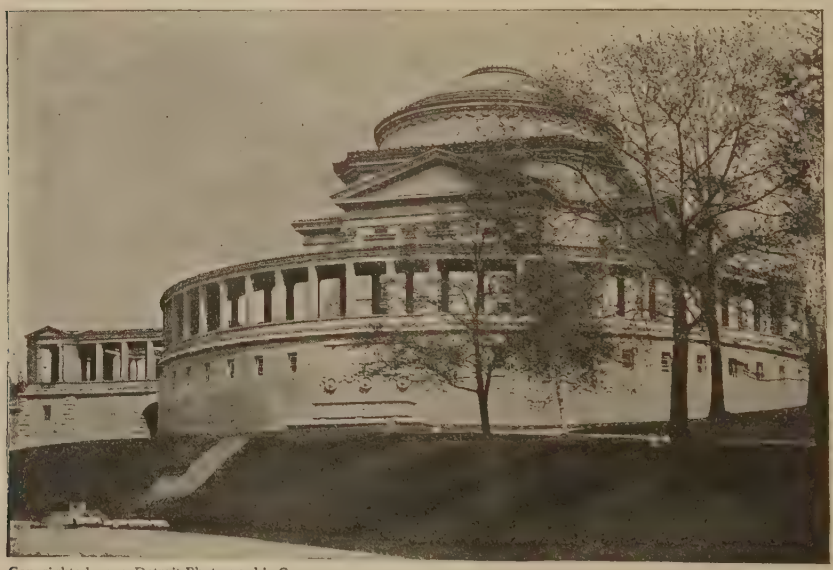
Nominations were invited from the public, and those that were seconded by members of the University Senate were to be submitted to an electorate of one hundred eminent citizens named by the Council, each of whom had to vote for fifty of the candidates.

The ballots of the judges were received by the University Senate in October, 1900, ninety-seven of the one hundred having voted. The names submitted to them numbered 252, and none receiving less than 51 votes could be accepted. Only 29 candidates met this condition. They were: George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Daniel Webster, Benjamin Franklin, Ulysses S. Grant, John



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THE HALL OF FAME

Marshall, Thomas Jefferson, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry W. Longfellow, Robert Fulton, Washington Irving, Jonathan Edwards, Samuel F. B. Morse, David G. Farragut, Henry Clay, Nathaniel Hawthorne, George Peabody, Robert E. Lee, Peter Cooper, Eli Whitney, John T. Audubon, Horace Mann, Henry Ward Beecher, James Kent, Joseph Story, John Adams, William E Channing, Gilbert Stuart, Asa Gray. It was decided to complete the list in 1905, when twenty-six panels were to be filled. Every name which receives ten votes on the first ballot are eligible, and the same judges, if living, were to act. It is intended to provide an additional hall with thirty panels for the names of foreign-born Americans.

CHAPTER CIX

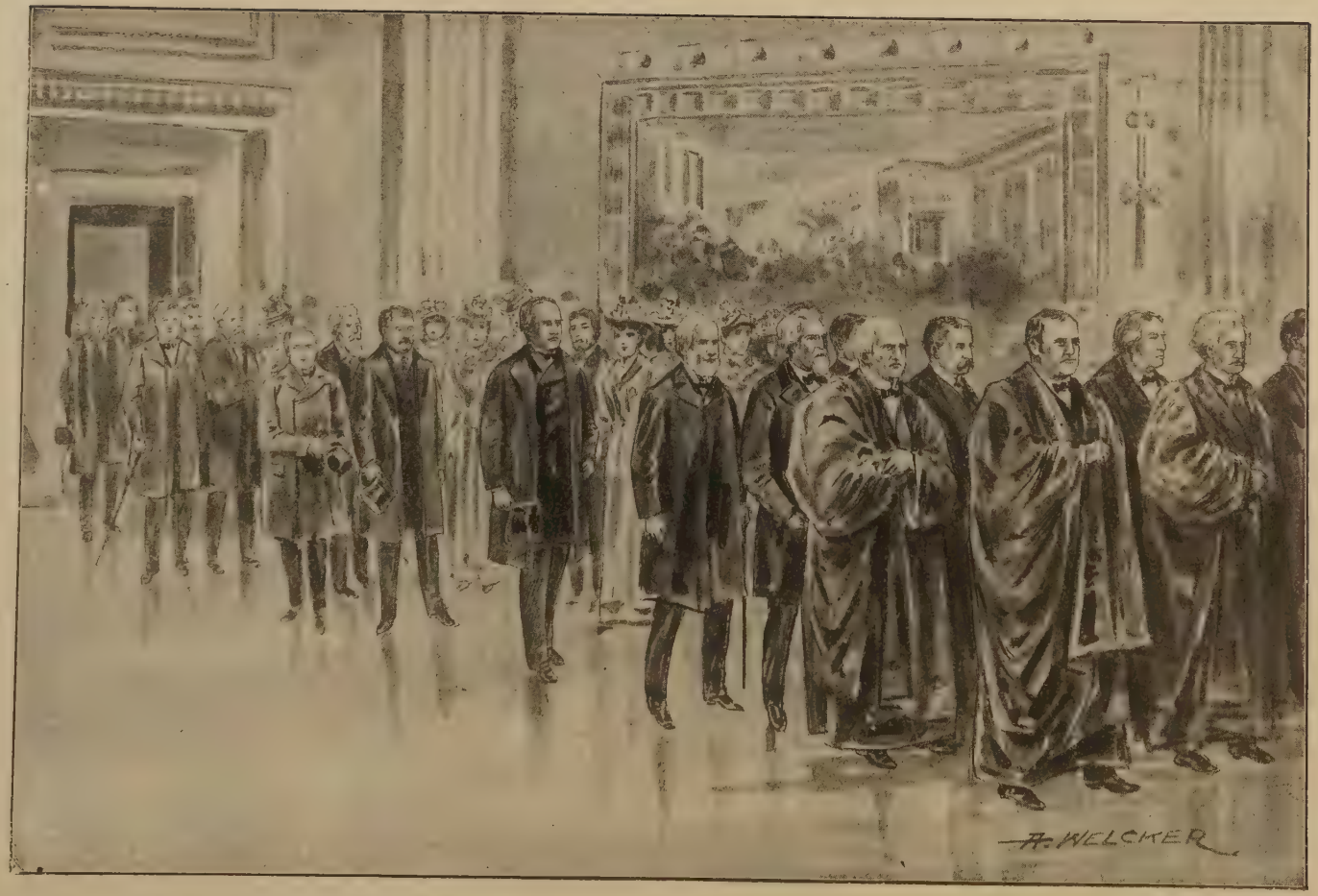
McKINLEY'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1901

[The ceremonies at the second inauguration of President McKinley marked a new era in the civic and military displays of such occasions. In splendor and magnitude they surpassed any spectacle of the kind in the previous history of our country. The plainness and simplicity that were so prominent in events of this character in the earlier history of the Republic seemed to have departed, and in their stead appeared much of the splendor and ostentation that usually mark the assumption of authority by a new ruler in the older European governments. Whether this is to our advantage or otherwise is not a subject for speculation by the historian, whose duty is performed when he relates events as they occur. The expansion of our territorial limits makes us necessarily a World Power, and brings us into closer contact with the monarchical governments of Europe. The question, therefore, naturally arises as to whether we shall put off our simplicity and assume their splendors; or shall we by the force of our example and traditions compel them to adopt our customs? History is being made rapidly in our day; time no longer travels by a slow coach, but events rush forward with the rapidity of an express train. The older generations are passing away, while new men and new measures leave their impress on public affairs.]

Second Inauguration of Wm. McKinley

THE second inauguration of President McKinley, on Monday March 4th, 1901, was marked by one of the most remarkable pageants in American history. The day opened mild and balmy, but was afterward marred by a downpour of rain which caused great discomfort to the vast throng that swarmed into the national capital. The bulk of the parade was military, and the display of regular troops and national guardsmen was the largest ever seen at a Presidential inauguration, although there were only three thousand regulars in line.

In accordance with custom, Vice-President Theodore Roosevelt first took the oath of office in the United States Senate, and was



THE INAUGURAL PROCESSION PASSING THROUGH THE ROTUNDA TO THE EAST PORTICO OF THE CAPITOL

sworn in by Senator William P. Frye of Maine, the acting Vice-President after the death of Mr. Hobart. Mr. Roosevelt then grasped the tiny ivory mallet and the blind chaplain, Mr. Milburn, offered a prayer, after which the Vice-President read a brief address which was well received.

By direction of the Vice-President, the Secretary of the Senate read President McKinley's proclamation for an extra session of the Senate, after which the Vice-President swore in by groups the newly elected Senators, each of whom signed the oath to support the Constitution of the United States. This completed the proceedings in the Senate, and an adjournment was had to the east portico of the Capitol, where the President was to take the oath of office. While the audience was hurrying thither, it began raining briskly, in spite of which many thousands swarmed into and crowded the seats upon the platform, until fully 80,000 persons faced the stand from which the President was to speak. The roof of the Capitol, the trees, and all available spaces were occupied.

At first no attention was paid to the rain, but it soon became so violent that many were driven from the benches to the protecting eaves of the galleries, while others sought shelter within the building; but the majority disregarded the storm, and in a short time the President appeared, accompanied by Chief-Justice Fuller. The latter opened a great Bible, which rested upon a stand, and the President, with his right hand on the page of the book, repeated in an impressive voice the official oath. This was followed by the reading of the inaugural address, after which the crowd dispersed.

Civic and Military Display at the Inauguration

Owing to the severe rain storm, the display of fireworks was postponed. On the journey to the Capitol, the Grand Marshal, General Francis Vinton Greene, of New York, and his chief of staff and aides, rode at the head, followed by Gen. Daniel E. Sickles, leading the veterans. These were followed by the Ohio troopers and then the President, after whom came the military grand division of the big parade, consisting of the West Point cadets, the Annapolis cadets, the Eleventh Infantry, a regiment of artillery from Fort Monroe, the Porto Rican battalion, a regiment of marines, the naval brigade, a battery of light artillery, and Colonel Rafferty's cavalry from Fort Myer. Then followed the District of Columbia National Guard, including two regiments and a battalion of infantry, the Engineer Corps, the Signal Corps, the Naval Battalion, the

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Ambulance Corps, the High School cadets, and the Colored High School battalion.

Thirty thousand men were in the afternoon march in honor of the new administration. The rain had ceased, leaving the streets clean and wet. The parade differed from the morning one, in that it was much larger and the Vice-President rode in the cavalcade. Directly after the official reviewing party had taken its place, the head of the procession came in sight, the band playing "Hail to the Chief," as it filed past. General Greene and his staff were dazzling in their gorgeous uniforms. Behind them came the military grand division under the command of Gen. John R. Brooke, U. S. A., as chief marshal, with a staff of army officers to assist him. The division was in two brigades, and formed a superb body of fighting men. The first brigade was headed by the West Point cadets, whose marching, as usual, was perfection. They and the Annapolis boys, directly behind them, were the only organization in which not a single eye glanced so much as a hair's breadth to catch a glimpse of the distinguished reviewers while passing in front of them.

Following the naval cadets was the Eleventh Infantry, then the Third Artillery, and a squadron of cavalry.

Next after the regular soldiers were the District of Columbia militia, the second division following and composed of fourteen regiments, two troops, two batteries, and an infantry company, all made up of the Pennsylvania National Guard, with which were included the first Delaware regiment of infantry. The third division was enthusiastically cheered, for it was the command of Gen. Joe Wheeler, the famous ex-Confederate cavalry leader and one of the heroes of the Spanish war.

The civic division contained clubs from nearly every part of the Union, and, when late in the afternoon, it had filed past, it was agreed by all that the inaugural parade was the biggest and best managed that Washington had ever seen. The ceremonies wound up with the usual inauguration ball, which was held in the Pension Office Building.

Reappointment of Cabinet

On the 5th the President reappointed his former Cabinet, without change, and the nominations were confirmed by the Senate the same day. But it was subsequently announced that Attorney-General John W. Griggs, of New Jersey, would retire about the first of April.

During the week ending March 9th, 1901, a feeling of apprehension was excited throughout the country by the announcement of the serious illness of ex-President Benjamin Harrison, at his home in Indianapolis. He was taken with a severe cold which developed into pneumonia of so serious a character as to leave but little hope for his recovery. His condition grew steadily worse until Wednesday, the 13th, when, at 4:45 in the afternoon of that day, he breathed his last. He had been unconscious for some hours, and died in that condition, as peacefully as if he were falling asleep.

Death of ex-President Harrison

News of the event was immediately telegraphed to all parts of the world, and answering messages of condolence and esteem soon began to pour in. The following telegram was received from President McKinley shortly after the announcement of the death of the distinguished statesman:

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, March 13, 1901.

"Mrs. Benjamin Harrison, Indianapolis:

"In the death of General Harrison the country has lost a distinguished statesman, a devoted patriot, and an exemplary citizen. The people of the nation mourn with you. You have the heartfelt sympathy of Mrs. McKinley and myself in this hour of overwhelming sorrow in your home.

"WILLIAM MCKINLEY."

Ex-President Cleveland, on being informed of the decease of General Harrison, gave out the following statement for publication, from his home at Princeton, N. J.:

Expressions of Distinguished Men

"Not one of our countrymen should for a moment fail to realize the services which have been performed in their behalf by the distinguished dead. In high public office he was guided by patriotism and devotion to duty, often at the sacrifice of temporary popularity, and in private station his influence and example were always in the direction of decency and good citizenship. Such a career and the incidents related to it should leave a deep and useful impression upon every section of our national life."

Writing of the death of General Harrison, William J. Bryan, Democratic candidate for President in 1896 and 1900, said:

"The death of Benjamin Harrison, soldier, lawyer, orator, statesman, and ex-President, removes one of the most conspicuous figures in

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American life. He ran the gamut of public office and everywhere met the expectations of those who gave him their support. He served in the Union army for three years during the Civil War, beginning as a second lieutenant and finally winning the brevet of brigadier-general. He was a lawyer of great learning and experience, one of the ablest of those who have occupied the White House. As an orator, he deserves a place among the best of his generation. His numerous speeches during the Presidential term showed a wide range of knowledge and great felicity of expression. In the Senate and as chief executive he displayed rare qualities of statesmanship, and retired from office universally respected."

These messages were accepted as fair expressions of the sentiments of the people and of all the great political parties of the country regarding the distinguished dead.

In accordance with the latest precedent for such occasions, set by President Harrison himself on the death of ex-President Hayes, President McKinley issued a proclamation announcing the decease of General Harrison and recounting his public services. The flags on all Government buildings were ordered to be displayed at half-mast for thirty days, and all officers of the army and navy were directed to wear crape on their swords and left arms during the same period. The departments at Washington and elsewhere were ordered to be closed on the day of the funeral. At dawn of that day thirteen guns were fired at the National Capital, and a single gun every thirty minutes thereafter until sundown, when a national salute of forty-five guns was fired. Under a recent act of Congress the draping of public buildings was forbidden, and this questionable feature of mourning was accordingly omitted on the present occasion. On the day of the funeral the troops and marines at all stations in the territory of the United States were paraded and the President's proclamation was read to them.

Funeral of the ex-President

The funeral took place on Sunday, March 17th, in the first Presbyterian Church at Indianapolis, of which General Harrison had been a member for nearly fifty years. Among the honorary pall-bearers were the following members of the ex-President's cabinet and other distinguished men: Gen. Benjamin F. Tracy, John Wanamaker, W. H. H. Miller, John W. Noble and Charles Foster, Gen. Lew Wallace, Judson Harmon, and William A. Woods.

DEATH OF EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON—SCENE IN THE PARLORS OF THE HARRISON HOME IN INDIANAPOLIS

A FILIPINO HUT

On the 23d of March, 1901, Gen. Emilio Aguinaldo, leader of the Filipino insurrectionary movement, was captured at his temporary capital of Palanan, Island of Luzon, as the result of a successful expedition planned and executed by Gen. Frederick Funston, of the Kansas Volunteers. The details of the incident constitute one of the most sensational events in our national history; and the success of the undertaking, together with the importance of the results, caused the immediate promotion of Gen. Funston to the position of Brigadier-General in the Regular Army.

Capture of Aguinaldo

The captured leader was taken to Manila, where he was treated with the utmost courtesy by the military authorities. A few days after his arrival he took the oath of allegiance to the United States, and on the 19th of April he issued an address to the Filipino people, in which he declared that a complete termination of hostilities and a lasting peace were not only desirable, but absolutely essential to the welfare of the Philippine Islands. "The Filipinos have never been dismayed at their weakness," he declared, "nor have they faltered in following the path pointed out by their fortitude and courage. The time has come, however, in which they find their advance along this path to be impeded by an irresistible force, which, while it restrains them, yet enlightens their minds and opens to them another course, presenting them the cause of peace."

The Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, N. Y., was opened to the public on May 1, but as many of the exhibits were not ready the ceremonial opening was postponed until the 20th. As the name indicates, this was an exposition of the products of science, skill and industry in "all the Americas," including our "new possessions" beyond the seas. Nearly all the countries of North, Central and South America were represented by their indigenous products. In many respects the exhibition was a magnificent success, the attendance of visitors reaching a total of 8,350,000; but the receipts fell short, by more than $3,500,000, of paying expenses, with nearly half a million dollars due to contractors. It seems to be a peculiarity of such exhibitions to fail in paying profits. At Buffalo the old story of unpreparedness at the time of opening was repeated, and had something to do with the failure of the enterprise.

The Pan-American Exposition

But the Pan-American Exposition will always retain a vivid and dreadful prominence in the memory of the American people, because of the tragedy enacted there on the 6th of September, 1901. President McKinley was the guest of Buffalo, whither he had gone to do

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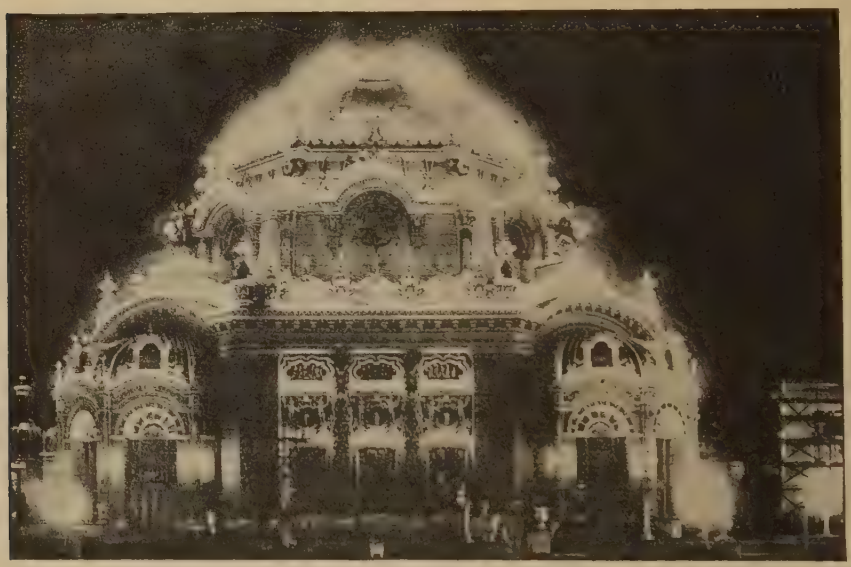
what he could in promoting by his presence international peace and good will among the people of the Western continents and of all the world. About 4 o'clock of the day named the President, after attending an organ recital in the Temple of Music, on the Exposition grounds, held a public reception, in accordance with the custom of Presidents, from the earliest days. As the multitude filed past he greeted each person warmly with a grasp of the hand and a few kind words. Several members of the Government Secret Service were present and alert, though who could imagine that any one lived wicked enough to wish to harm one of the gentlest and most lovable rulers this nation has ever had?



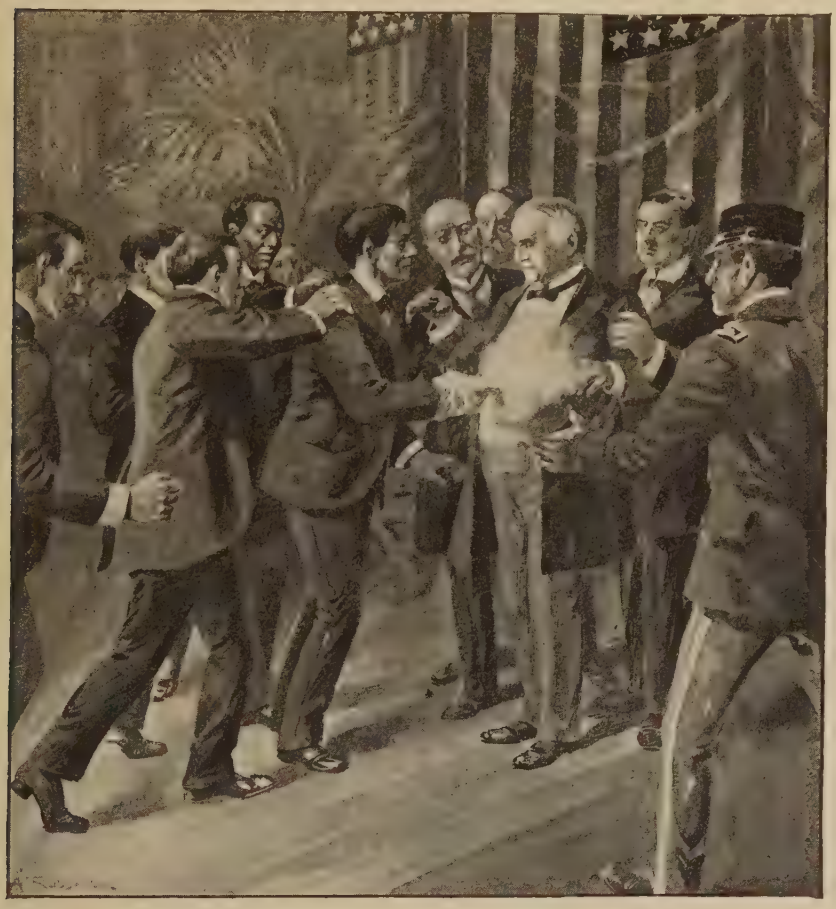
THE TEMPLE OF MUSIC AT NIGHT, PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION

Assassination of President McKinley

While this democratic ceremony was in progress, a man in the crowd of humble though sinister aspect, worked his way up to the edge of the dais until he stood within a pace of the President. The latter, observing him, smiled in his usual benevolent manner, bowed and extended his hand. Instantly the man lurched forward, roughly brushed the President's arm aside, and placing a pistol almost against his breast fired twice in rapid succession. The weapon had been concealed by the folds of a handkerchief tied about the assassin's hand, as if he were hurt, so that no one in that vast crowd—not even the watchful detectives—had the least suspicion of his murderous intent.

NATIVE HOUSES IN THE PHILIPPINES

The shots were fired so nearly together that they made scarcely more than a single sound. For an instant the President trembled and clutched at his breast; then, with a look at the wretch, awful in its inquisitive reproach, he bent slightly forward, sank back, and was caught in the arms of Secretary Cortelyou. The murderer attempted



ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT McKINLEY

Capture of the Assassin

to fire a third time, but, quick as his movements were, he was baffled in his purpose, for a Secret Service man, standing opposite the President, hurled him fiercely to the floor. As he fell an athletic negro leaped upon him, and a scuffle ensued between the two as they rolled over on the floor. Soldiers of the United States Artillery, detailed

at the Exposition, leaped upon the struggling men, and the Exposition police and Secret Service detectives also rushed forward. Had the crowd reached the assassin he would have been torn limb from limb; but before the fearful tragedy became known he was hustled away and securely lodged in jail.

The President was taken without a moment's loss of time to the Emergency Hospital, on the Exposition grounds, where he received the kindest attention and the best efforts of the highest medical skill. From the hospital he was soon afterward borne to the home of Mr. Milburn, where he and Mrs. McKinley had been stopping during their visit. For a few days the bulletins were of a favorable character, and caused a general belief that the President would recover; but it was not so to be. At a quarter past 2 o'clock on the morning of Saturday, September 14, he passed away. His last words were: "Good-bye, all; good-bye. It is God's way. His will be done."

Death of President McKinley

The body was first taken to Washington, and lay through the night of the 16th in the White House. The next day it was removed to the Capitol, where simple funeral rites were performed. On September 19 the remains were deposited, at Canton, Ohio, in the receiving vault of the West Lawn Cemetery, there to await final interment. An impressive manifestation of the grief of the nation over its loss was shown throughout the country, in the stoppage of all railway trains and trolley lines and of work in factories and places of business, for a period of five minutes after the time of placing the body in the vault. For that time the nation stood uncovered, in absolute and solemn silence.

The assassin, who, so far as could be learned, was alone in the inception and commission of his crime—though it was the direct result of anarchistic teachings—was regularly tried, convicted, and put to death by electricity in the State prison at Auburn, N. Y., on the morning of October 29.

Atrocity and Idiocy of the Crime

William McKinley was the third President to fall a victim to the assassin's bullet. In the case of President Lincoln, the country was throbbing with the hot resentments engendered by the great Civil War; President Garfield was stricken by a blatant crank and disappointed office seeker; but the only explanation of the atrocious murder of President McKinley was the insane egotism which led the assassin, like his predecessors, to do a deed that should "ring 'round the world." Aside from the atrocity of the crime itself, its idiocy is

beyond comprehension. Not the slightest advantage to any human being could come from the President's death; the sacrifice of a score of presidents would not cause the least jar in the governmental machinery.

But the woful tragedy at Buffalo forces upon Americans their own share in the responsibility of the crime. We are always ready to hurrah and sing the glories of the land of the free, and to welcome the oppressed and downtrodden of all nations to our shores, blind to the fact that in so doing we invite the vilest scum, cast out by other countries, to become component parts of our citizenship. These wretches, under the name of anarchists, howl their curses against the best government the sun ever shone upon; they plot its overthrow; they spit upon religion and everything we hold sacred, and they urge the assassination of all rulers, no matter how good they may be. Then, in the inevitable order of events, and in obedience to the law that effect flows from cause, when a president falls under the dagger or bullet, we rouse to our own folly in permitting these things to be and to continue. We clamor for stringent laws; we discuss the scheme of herding anarchists together on some lonely island in the sea, and of joining with other nations in stamping out the whole brood. But the flurry soon passes, and even a governor does not hesitate to pardon and set free a gang of anarchists taken redhanded in the act of dynamiting to death the brave police of a leading city. We slumber on, until startled again into wakefulness by some crime that calls to heaven for punishment, while the world looks on in amazement at the freest and most beneficent nation nourishing, fondling and caressing the enemies that are preying upon its vitals.

Mistaken Leniency to Anarchists

CHAPTER CX

ROOSEVELT'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, 1901–1905

Civil Government in the Philippines

[Three times in the history of our country a President has reached the chair through the assassination of the one elected to that exalted office. It seems an anomaly that the freest government on earth should be a sufferer at the hands of those who are driven to our shores by the severity of their own rulers, yet such is the fact, and its cause has been indicated in the preceding chapter. Whether we are ever to rise to the demands of our manifest duty in this respect and utterly extirpate the atrocious enemies of government and of society, is one of the momentous questions of the future. However, we have crossed the threshold of the twentieth century — a century of achievements yet to be, and of discoveries and advancement in all branches of knowledge, such as will surpass everything that has gone before since the birth of "recorded time." That the United States is to be among the foremost in this wonderful work is a certainty, and the thought must fill the breast of every American with gratitude that his lot has been cast in a land so favored by Heaven and among a people to whom this mighty task has been intrusted.]

Personal Character of President Roosevelt

WE have given, in a previous chapter, the chief events in the brief but "strenuous" life of President Roosevelt. We know that he is fearless in the performance of duty, rigidly honest, a devoted patriot, and an intense American. In many respects, he is an educated Andrew Jackson, with the rough edges worn off by culture and learning, with more deference than Old Hickory was accustomed to show to the views of others; as ready to listen to the requests of the humblest as of the most exalted; ambitious only to serve his country, and a worthy member of the illustrious line of Chief Executives, every one of whom was a patriot, a gentleman, and an honor to the land that gave him birth.

Aguinaldo's Address to his Compatriots

The preceding chapter contains an account of the capture of Aguinaldo, the Filipino leader who gave our forces so much trouble in the Philippines. He issued an address to his compatriots on the 19th of

April, 1901, in which he urged them to acknowledge and accept the sovereignty of the United States throughout the Philippine Archipelago, as he accepted it without any reservation whatever. With the publication of this address Governor-General MacArthur ordered the release of 1,000 Filipino prisoners, upon their also taking the oath of allegiance. Immediately after the surrender of Aguinaldo, Northwestern Panay submitted, with 30 officers, 185 men, and 105 rifles, as did also Northern Mindanao, with 21 men and the same number of rifles. This was followed by still more important surrenders, so that by the middle of April the island of Panay was declared completely pacified. The official losses of the insurgents, largely estimated, was given as: Killed, fully 25,000; captured or surrendered, 20,069; rifles captured or surrendered, 7,667; rounds of ammunition captured (incomplete returns), 605,142.

Surrender of Insurgent Forces

At the beginning of May there were only a few feeble embers of insurrection. The report of General Frederick D. Grant, on his arrival at San Francisco on the 18th of that month, was highly encouraging with reference to matters in the islands. Two days after the date named, General MacArthur released 1,000 native prisoners, as evidence of his satisfaction over the surrender of the insurgent generals Mascardo and Lacuna. News was received the same day of the surrender of General Moxica, the insurgent commander in the island of Leyte, with a small force, which was all that remained of his army. Several other submissions took place about the same time.

Organization of Civil Government in the Philippine Islands

On June 21, President McKinley, through the Secretary of War, issued an order for the establishment of civil government in the Philippines. The order vested William H. Taft, hitherto president of the Philippine Commission, with executive authority in all civil affairs previously exercised by the military governor. The existing municipal and provincial civil governments were ordered to report to the new civil governor, and the power to appoint civil officers, until then vested in the commission, or in the military governor, was to be exercised by the civil governor, with the advice and consent of the commission. The military governor was relieved from the performance of the civil duties assumed by the civil governor, but the authority of the military governor was continued in those districts in which insurrection persisted, or where public safety demanded the exercise of such authority. The order was to go into effect on July 4. On that day, Mr. Taft was inducted into office as the first civil governor of the Philippines under American rule. On the same day, General Adna R. Chaffee succeeded General MacArthur as military governor.

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PRESIDENT THEODORE ROOSEVELT

The oath of office was administered to Governor Taft by Chief Justice Arellano, and in the presence of a large number of spectators he dwelt upon the actual and prospective situation of the islands and their inhabitants.

With twenty-seven provinces organized, the insurrection was still

GOVERNOR WILLIAM H. TAFT

existent in five; in them military government would continue. Besides these twenty-seven provinces, there were sixteen more not yet organized, but reported to be free from insurrection, and there were four organized provinces which were not yet ready for civil government.

Organization of Provinces

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Governor Taft announced that on September 1 the Commission would be enlarged by the addition of three native members, Dr. Wardo Detavera, Benito Legarda and Jose Luzuriaga. Four departments of government would be instituted, headed by members of the Commission, as follows: Interior, Mr. Worcester; Commerce and Police, Mr. Wright; Justice and Finance, Mr. Ide; Public Instruction, Mr. Moses. In the conclusion of his address the Governor reiterated the hope expressed by President McKinley, that in the future the inhabitants would be grateful for American victories, and that they would be "indissolubly linked in ties of affection with the common country."

Assignment of Officers

On June 15 the Supreme Court of the Philippines was constituted by decree of the Commission, as follows: Chief Justice, Cayetano Arellano; Associate Justices, Florentino Torres, formerly Attorney-General; J. F. Cooper, of Texas; James F. Smith, of California; Charles A. Willard, of Minnesota; Victorino Mapa, of Iloilo; Fletcher Ladd, of New Hampshire. L. R. Wilfley, of Missouri, was appointed Attorney-General, with a native as assistant, and a solicitor, also a native Filipino.

Surrender of Gen. Cailles

The surrender of General Cailles, with 650 men and 500 rifles, took place at Santa Cruz, Laguna province, on June 24. The ceremonies were impressive, the final act being the taking of the oath of allegiance by all the insurgents. After the shipment home of volunteers from Manila, on June 6, the number of regulars left was 49,000, the expectation being that, by the close of the year, this force could be reduced to 40,000, or possibly 30,000.

Secret Political Society among Filipinos

That a great secret political society existed among the Filipinos had been known for a long time, but the first authentic account of the organization was given by Colonel L. W. V. Kennon, U. S. A., in the *North American Review*. From this it appears that the society was founded in 1892, by Andres Bonifacio, a Manila brickmaker. In the Tagalo language the name is *Katipunan*, which means in English, "The Supreme and Venerable Association of the Sons of the People." It grew rapidly in Manila and the Tagalo provinces, and at the end of four years had a membership estimated at 15,000. Its aim from the beginning was the overthrow of the friars' domination and the achievement of certain political reforms, but at first the leaders did not agitate for autonomy and a republic. In 1896, when Aguinaldo was president of the association, he learned of a plan of the government to arrest all members of the order. Immediately he roused them to

rebellion, and several Spanish garrisons were attacked and captured. After eight months of fighting the government suppressed the rising by bribery.

The outbreak of the war between Spain and the United States thrilled the members of the order with the belief that they could establish a republic, dreaming, also, of the founding of a grand Malay empire, wherein all that race should be subject to the Tagals of Luzon. When Aguinaldo found that he must reckon with the Americans, he had gone too far to retreat, and what followed is already known to the reader.

Samar Island

Samar is one of the Philippines, lying southeast of Luzon, from which it is separated by a strait twenty miles wide. Its length is 140 miles, with an average breadth of 20 miles, and it has a population of perhaps 100,000. The people are a scowling, sullen race, different from those of the other Visayan Islands. For a long time Samar has been the piratical haunts of the Moro chiefs and the Sulu pirates, and as one sails along the rocky coast he will see on every headland a coral stone fort, from which, for many a year, the natives have scanned the sea on the alert for the coming of their ruthless visitors. The men of Samar, therefore, naturally distrust all strangers, and having been accustomed from early youth to firearms they were unconquerable by the Spaniards, whose sovereignty over them was but a shadow.

For eighteen months after the islands came under our jurisdiction, the Forty-third and the Twenty-ninth United States Volunteers held what might be termed a rambling possession of Samar, fighting daily until their two years were up, when they went away, leaving matters as they were before they came, except that the natives were more savage and revengeful. When General Corbin visited the Philippines, General Hughes, commanding the Department of the Visayans, told him Samar was pacified, and it looked as if such were the fact, for the Ninth and the First United States Infantry were scattered here and there along the coast and in some places in the interior; the detachments numbered no more than twenty men. But, despite the assurance of General Hughes, nearly every one of these little places was in a state of siege by a set of savages as merciless and treacherous as Geronimo's Apaches of the Southwest.

Conditions Among the Visayans

The brave soldiers stationed at the pueblo of Balangigan, on the southern coast of Samar, were so absolutely cut off from the world that for two months not a communication had reached or come from

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them. The villagers held no intercourse whatever with the white men, but their anger toward them simmered and intensified until a plot was formed to massacre every one of the Americans.

Earthquake on Samar

On September 24, five days before the outbreak, the neighborhood was severely shaken by an earthquake, which toppled over several houses and wounded a number of natives. Dr. Griswold and the officers and men gave skillful attention to the sufferers, who, if grateful at the time, speedily resumed their sullen ferocity and eagerly awaited the hour when they could bury their daggers in the hearts of those who had befriended them.

It did not escape the notice of the soldiers that the natives were laboring under some peculiar excitement, but it was attributed to the expectation of the dreaded tidal wave that generally follows an earthquake. The real cause, however, was deeper than that, for the conspiracy had been formed long before and the time for its execution was at hand. Services were held oftener in the church of the pueblo and the bells were tolled more frequently. When explanation was asked of the chief of police, who spoke Spanish, he said the people had not yet recovered from the earthquake shock and were expecting another. It was noticed by more than one of the soldiers that a number of women and children left the town on September 26 and 27, but it was believed they were making a pilgrimage to a native shrine a short distance inland.

Massacre on Samar Island

Such was the ominous situation when, on the afternoon of September 28, a small native dugout was seen coming up the bay. In it were seated five men, one of whom was Lieutenant Bumpus, who had been sent three days before to Tacloban, Leyte, to obtain the company's mail. As has been stated, the company stationed at Balangigan had not received a letter or any communication for the previous eight weeks. It is easy to understand how anxious all were to get papers and news from home. Such letters are more than food and drink to the gallant boys, to whom the dear ones are never so precious as when "half the convex world intrudes between." Some of the officers thought that orders were probably awaiting them, and to learn the truth Lieutenant Bumpus and four privates were detailed to make the trip of forty miles up the strait to Tacloban. The pull was a laborious one against wind and tide, and on the forenoon of the 28th, the lieutenant put into Basay, the post next to Balangigan, where Company G of the same regiment was stationed. Lieutenant Bumpus was so

THE FAMOUS NINTH INFANTRY

exhausted that Captain Bookmiller, the commanding officer of the post, begged him to remain over until the next day.

"No," he replied, pointing to the mailbags in the dugout; "the poor fellows are so homesick to read what is in there that I have not the heart to make them wait another hour."

News from Home

It need not be said how welcome Lieutenant Bumpus was to his comrades. The precious missives were eagerly seized by their owners, and some fortunate fellows had several upon which to feast and to read over and over again. No wonder they were excited and jubilant, for it was like being at the fireside, exchanging loving words with the fathers, mothers, brothers, sisters and the other ones held in tender remembrance. There were photographs to be handed around and admired, affectionate messages and yearnings for the return of the gallant soldier boys, who were happy in the belief that the blessed reunion would soon be granted, and they could sit down among the cherished ones and tell of dangers past and gone forever.

That night one of the soldiers, who was happy over the tidings from beyond the sea, rose from his cot in the large barrack, commanded by the first sergeant, and sat for some minutes in the window, with the cool breeze fanning his face, while his thoughts wandered to his far-away home. In the midst of his musings he noticed, just across the plaza, a group of people, who presently vanished in the gloom and were followed by another group. A feeling of uneasiness inclined the watcher to call the attention of the corporal of the guard to the assemblage at this unusual hour, but just then the monotonous, whining chant of prayers floated to him through the still air. This satisfied the soldier that all was well, and shortly after he lay down and slept until six o'clock in the morning.

Suspicious Movements

At the hour named nearly all the men were at breakfast in the dining hall, which was five or six rods from the main barrack. The barracks were three in number, and in front of each a sentinel was on guard. In the upper room of the main barrack most of the guns and ammunition were kept, under a guard of three men, while in front of the officers' quarters stood a sentry, and inside the quarters a corporal and two men.

In order to understand what followed, it should be stated that the church was the only stronghold in town. Within it a dozen men could have held a thousand at bay, but in order to cultivate friendly relations with the natives, Captain Connell was forbidden to disturb

the edifice, and was ordered to live, so far as possible, among the people, a command which did not permit him to have a stockade or trench near the camp. While Captain Connell, like many a brave officer before him, failed to take every precaution, and was not as suspicious as he should have been, yet he did all he could, consistent with the assumption of his superior officer, that he and his troops were living among a friendly people.

At the breakfast hour, the prisoners, not quite a hundred in number, were lolling in the grass under the Sibley tents, and in a corner was a sentry standing guard over a pile of bolos used by the prisoners when at work. As the time approached for the beginning of the day's labor, the other members of the gang, who, on account of their good conduct, were not kept in the prison tents, were lounging in groups about the guardhouse, while other free laborers came straggling in just as they had been accustomed to do.

Treachery of a Native

It must be borne in mind that the chief of police was the leader in the horrible plot, though he pretended from the first to be a friend of the Americans. He now made his appearance, walking across the plaza accompanied by two or three of his lieutenants. With his usual deliberate step he came up to the sentry before the guard tent and asked him whether it was time to begin work. Before a reply could be made the chief leaped like a cat upon the sentry, wrenched his rifle from his grasp, and felled him senseless with a frightful blow from the clubbed weapon.

The Attack

At the same instant the chief uttered a rasping cry, in which hundreds of others joined, and swarms of men, many of whom had been crouching in the grass, came running from all directions, wild to join in the massacre. Up in the belfry of the church a dozen others were stealthily peering out and awaiting the first blow. The moment it was delivered they seized the rope and began furiously tugging at it. As on the eve of St. Bartholomew, the tones of the bell rang out clear and penetrating, and were quickly joined by the harsh notes of conch shells from the top of every hill. Each bush, shrub and hiding place seemed to uncover a dusky assassin, who sped in his bare feet, with dagger and knife, to aid in the diabolical work that was not to leave one of the hated "Americanos" alive. The first act of these wretches was to leap upon the sentries and cut them down with their knives as they walked past. The only man to escape was the sentry who had been stunned by his own rifle. He was overlooked in the melee, and

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on regaining his senses was able to join Sergeant Markley and his heroic band.

Among the foremost of the cutthroats were the prisoners, who sped like deer for the barracks where the arms were stacked. The soldiers looked toward the officers' quarters across the plaza, expecting their leader to appear, but the sight which met their eyes told them that no help could come from there. A swarm of crowding natives were disappearing over the covered causeway leading from the church to the priest's house, where the officers lived. There were sounds of a struggle, suppressed cries, and then came an awful stillness whose meaning could not be misunderstood.

Death of Captain Connell

When the attack burst upon the officers, Captain Connell dashed to the window which had been smashed in by the assailants, where with only his naked fists he pummeled the swarthy natives, who struck quick, fierce blows with their daggers. From amid the smothering swarm he plunged forward like a lion beset by tormentors and leaped down a distance of twenty feet. Though wounded in a dozen places he regained his feet, fell a second time, rose once more, and then went down under a rain of daggers. That was the end!

In less time than it takes to relate it, the natives were in possession of the barracks known as Nos. 1, 2 and 3, while our men were absolutely unarmed, with a horde of merciless wretches drawing a cordon around them and irrestrainable in their panting eagerness for blood. Reinforcements were racing from every quarter, their only fear seeming to be that they would not arrive in time to be in at the death.

The dauntless courage of the American soldier has been proved in too many thousands of instances to need any comment at our hands. Instead of scattering in a wild panic, to be hunted down and tortured to death by the savages, the men caught up saucepans, shovels, baseball bats, sticks, stones, and anything that could be made to serve as the crudest sort of weapon, and went to cracking dusky heads as if it were the veriest pastime. What they needed before everything else were the rifles in the barrack, which, like the others, had been captured by the enemy.

American Heroism

When the men under the first sergeant reached the main barrack, the silence within told the fearful truth that the guard had been killed. Observing our men coming, a score of the police and other leaders barricaded themselves in the orderly room, where all the arms were kept,

GENERAL VIEW OF MANILA

and peered out, feasting their eyes upon the struggle. Within an incredibly brief space of time, fourteen soldiers were killed on the stairway, and the remainder, bleeding from many wounds, staggered back, only to renew the struggle and bring it very near success. Raising a bamboo ladder against the back of the building, the sergeant and four of his men ran up the frail support, and armed with shovels began fighting desperately to reach the invaluable weapons. Their comrades were following as fast as they could—indeed, faster than they should—when the ladder snapped in two, flinging those upon it to the ground, and leaving the five men cut off from all help. They fought like the heroes they were, but there could be only the single sad ending, which mercifully was not long delayed.

Bravery of Sergt. Betron and Corporal Burke

The unsuccessful attack upon the main barrack left few survivors. Many of these were cut down as they ran for the second barrack, where Sergeant Betron and Corporal Burke were leading, with the same incredible courage, their unarmed comrades against the daggers of the bolomen, but with no more promise of success than that at the main barrack. The floor was covered so thickly with dead bodies that one could not move without stepping upon them. Despite their desperate resistance the Americans were forced steadily back out of the barrack, the door being so jammed and wedged with savages that they interfered with one another. The little band took refuge in a smaller room, where, with their backs against the wall, so that only a few bolomen could approach them at the same time, the Americans prepared to sell their lives as dearly as they could. Burke found himself growing weak from loss of blood, and determined to fight no more; but the sight of the chief of police in front of him, still eager to slay every white man without mercy, and the knowledge that he was the arch conspirator, fired the brave fellow with the resolve that when he died that unspeakable wretch should go with him.

A Death Struggle

Watching like a skilled pugilist for an opening, Burke leaped through the bloody throng and gripped the unsuspecting chief by the throat, bent on strangling him to death before help could avail. The two rolled to the floor, so interlocked and involved that none of the natives dared strike for fear of injuring the chief. Burke felt his strength going fast. He was bleeding from many wounds, and his fingers relaxed their grip around the throat of the yet uninjured chief. But, still interlocked, they tumbled back upon a cot. The weak and despairing Burke flung out his hand in an aimless way when, to his

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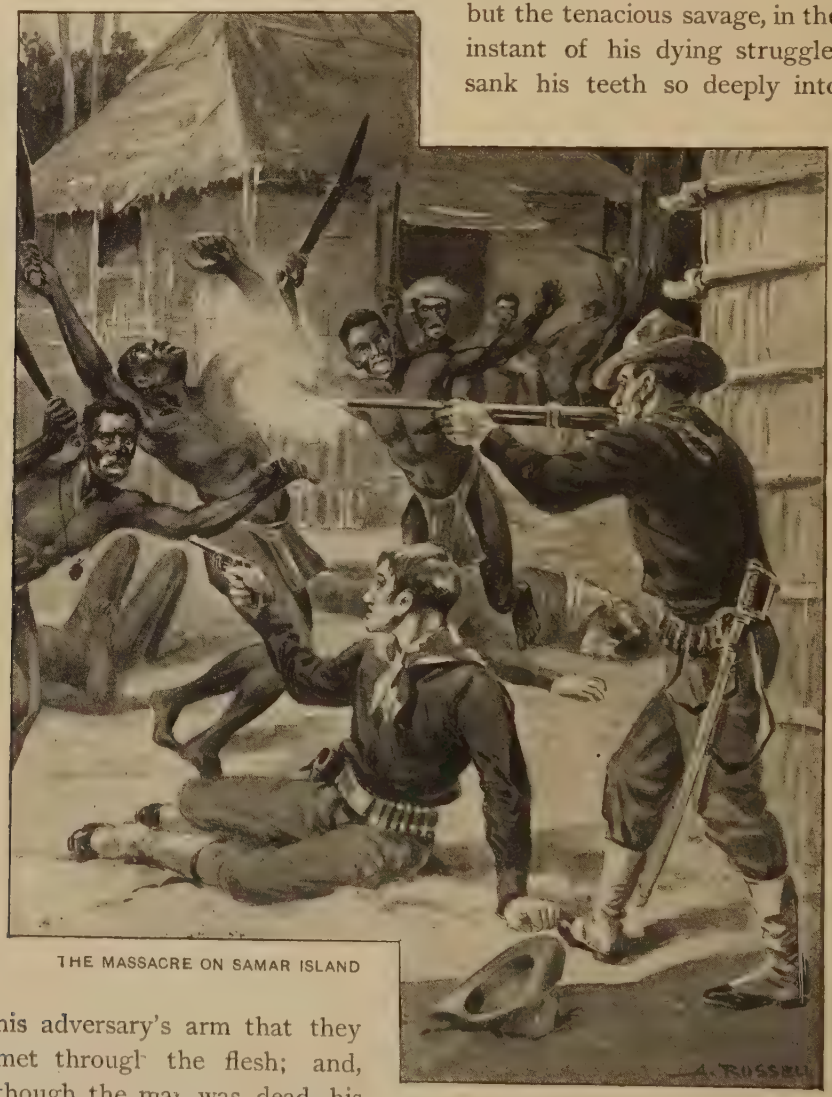
amazement, it struck a revolver. The weapon had belonged to the hospital man, slain in the first rush, and no one had observed it lying on the cot. Bringing the loaded pistol to bear against the head of the chief the sergeant shot him dead; but the tenacious savage, in the instant of his dying struggle, sank his teeth so deeply into



THE MASSACRE ON SAMAR ISLAND

his adversary's arm that they met through the flesh; and, though the man was dead, his rigid arms and legs held Burke so firmly that he could not release himself. But his pistol arm was free, and with incredible coolness he emptied the four remaining chambers among the other assassins, each

A Gruesome Combat

shot bringing down a man. This unexpected fusilade cleared the room for a minute or two, when Burke's friends, untwisting the limbs of the dead chief, set their comrade free. Not an ounce of ammunition could now be found, and the savages, quick to see the dilemma of their antagonists, lost no time in returning to the charge

It looked as if their last minute had come, and Burke and Betron grimly shook hands. Then they braced themselves for the final shock, one with a bolo he had captured, and the other with the butt of his revolver. At this critical moment, the "ping" of a Krag-Jorgensen rang across the plaza, followed by a second and a third. The veterans could not mistake the report. Again it sounded, and the blanching faces of the savages in the building revealed their terror. Outside, two or three of their number lunged forward and lay motionless, as other reports were heard. Relief had come in a strange and unexpected manner.

A Ray of Hope

Sergeant George F. Markley, of Weston, Va., was the hero of the Samar disaster. He is of herculean proportions, hardy, athletic, lithe, active, and as cool as he is brave. He served in the Fifth Maryland Volunteers during the Spanish War, and, in 1899, enlisted in the regular army and won rapid promotion, where it is won by merit alone.

The barrack where Markley and eight men lived was the most northerly and detached of all. The surrounding jungle approached so close that he was never easy, and kept sleepless vigilance. In addition to the sentry before the door, he always had one man stationed over the rifles. On the fatal morning he stood guard himself, and was relieved by the first soldier of his squad to return from breakfast. He had just reached the kitchen shed and had a cup of coffee to his lips, when the shouts and ringing of bells told him the massacre had begun. Without hesitation, Markley leaped up and ran at full speed to the barrack where the rifles were stored.

The Hero of Samar

His prominent figure and his running drew instant attention, and several of the savages tried to stop him. He knocked them over with kicks and blows, though one, who seized his ankle, brought him to the ground. In a flash he was up and off again. When he caught sight of the shack among the banana trees, he saw that the savages were ahead of him. Three, armed with bolos and daggers, stood in the door waiting for him to come within their reach. The sentry lay dead on the ground, and the soldier who had been left in charge of the guns was gasping in the death agony. Behind Markley came his fleet-footed

pursuers; they were close upon him, when suddenly he drew up to decide what he should do, if, indeed, he could do anything. And then it was that Sergeant Markley did a thing which, were it not clearly proved, would surpass belief.

An Amazing Exploit

Gathering himself together for a supreme effort, he dashed straight at the three bolomen who were awaiting him, and, an instant before coming within their reach, he leaped into the air and struck two of them in the stomach with his knees, driving them back with such violence that the further wall of the shack gave way and the men went down in the dust of the falling wall. Markley grappled with the third man, banged his head against a beam until he was senseless, and then leaped to the rifle-rack, where all the weapons were. Snatching out his own he turned the muzzle upon the fellow on the floor, who was in the act of rising, but, as to that particular savage, "the subsequent proceedings interested him no more." The two who had been hurled through the wall of the house scurried off toward the tall grass and one escaped, but Markley brought down the other before he got beyond range.

Looking around the sergeant saw that though he had plenty of firearms, he was entirely alone. His comrades had been beaten out of the main barracks and were running here and there, followed by a half-dozen or more savages, striking at them with their weapons. Two of the buglers were standing under the flagstaff, sounding the call to arms, but while Markley looked he saw one cut down. The other, a boy named Meyer, from South Dakota, showed wonderful dexterity in dashing about and dodging the blows of his enemies, receiving most of them on the mouth of his bugle. Elbert B. De Graffenreid, a private from Wichita, Kansas, stood on the top of a pile of paving stones, which he coolly hurled with deadly effect against a horde clamoring for his life. Markley began picking off these assailants, when another private, hearing his rifle, started on a run toward him. Five pursuers were on his heels, but Markley dropped two and the others turned back. The soldier quickly arrived, and seizing a rifle, the natives found that two crack shots were making things warm for them. One by one other soldiers dashed up, among them being the private who had made such good use of the paving stones. It is said he was so reluctant to abandon his position that it required a peremptory order from the sergeant to bring him to his side. That he had cause for his faith in the primitive missiles was

Primitive Weapons

proven by several dead bodies stretched at the base of the stone heap on which he had stood at bay. His arrival at the shack made the number of defenders eight, though some were wounded. Each had a rifle and ammunition and knew how to use them.

Master of the Situation

The sergeant now felt that he was master of the situation. He sent Private Clifford M. Mumby down the river to take possession of the boats. It looked like suicide, but Mumby did the work assigned him. He was joined by two wounded men, armed with bolos, who, repelling

SURVIVORS OF THE MASSACRE IN THE NATIVE BOAT

two bolo charges, took possession of the five boats, which they paddled well out into the river and there waited until they were wanted.

American Courage

It was while Mumby was picking his way down to the water that Markley and his men surrounded the barrack where Burke and Betron had made up their minds that their last minute had come. But the reinforcements now gave an exhibition of what a party of Americans, well armed and striving to save sorely-beset comrades, can do in the way of fighting. Of the savages surrounding the barrack containing Burke and Betron not one escaped, and of the Americans not one was so much as wounded. Seeing this the natives in the building made a desperate effort to get away, but most of them were shot down. Matters might not have gone so well had the savages known

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how to handle the weapons they had captured, but they could not master the mechanism of the guns and there was no time to take lessons.

Markley and Breton now found themselves at the head of sixteen men, with twenty-five rifles and abundant ammunition. They were victors and held the field. Three men were sent to get news of Mumby and the boats, and three of the most expert shots were stationed on the banks of the river to pick off all who tried to escape across the stream, while the rest gave their attention to bringing in their fallen comrades. The first thought was not to abandon Balangigan, but for Markley and a single companion to go in the swiftest boat to Basay, thirty miles away, for help. When about to push off the savages were tempted, by sight of the small number of survivors, to make a desperate rush. They were beaten off, but when this had been done it was found there were only five men who could handle their rifles effectively. Then it was decided to evacuate the place.

Victory and Escape

The thirty-mile trip was trying and dangerous to the last degree. Twenty-two men were crowded into a boat twenty-four feet long and thirty inches wide, a feat which seems incredible, but it was accomplished. The savages pursued them in increasing numbers, and a severe sea fight, as it may he termed, took place. Two of the men died on the dreadful voyage, but Basay was finally reached, where the refugees were safe. Captain Bookmiller, with half his company, lost no time in starting for Balangigan, leaving Lieutenant Drouillard, with thirty men, to guard the wounded and his own post, which was in danger. The town was recaptured and the Stars and Stripes hoisted again on the flagpole, the place having been in the possession of the savages for only twenty-eight hours.

Recapture of Balangigan.

The estimated loss of the natives was more than two hundred. Of our troops, three officers and forty men were killed, with six more missing, among the former being the gallant Lieutenant Bumpus, who was found on his bed where he lay, some of his letters clutched in his hands, as he sank into the slumber which knows no awaking. Our dead were mutilated, some of the most fiendish atrocities having been committed by the native women with their two-edged daggers. Four of the wounded died after being taken to the hospital at Basay.

Supreme Court of the Philippines

It will be remembered that there were two powers in the island, the military, represented by General Chaffee, and the civil power, represented by the Commission and the agencies. A clash arose between

the two. Since the source was the same — the supreme military authority of the President of the United States — General Chaffee held that the supreme court of the Philippines was not superior to himself in authority. When, however, he attempted to deport a civil employe recourse was had to the insular supreme court, which issued a writ of habeas corpus for the release of the subject of deportation. Under this writ the civilian was taken from the transport.

Conflicting Views

The Commission believed that the soldiers' influence upon the natives was calculated to bring about trouble rather than to promote peace. General Chaffee, on the other hand, believed that only drastic measures would succeed. He had no fears of an uprising, and was convinced that the situation was slowly improving. In a letter received by the War Department, dated November 15, 1901, he expressed the opinion that too much was promised the Filipinos at the beginning. He said:

"The situation improves every day. You may think the progress slow. I admit that it seems so to any one at a distance not familiar with the situation and the character of the people. In time they will be forced to admit that our purpose to secure peace is fixed and that the United States can not be swerved from its purpose at any cost. My opinion is, that there has been entirely too much talk hitherto of what the Filipino may hope for from us. The Commission recently passed a treason and sedition act. Vice-Governor Wright's speech opened their eyes. It was from the shoulder and a wonderfully good blow. The good it has done is very great. The politicians are beginning now to act in a way they should have acted long ago; that is, using their influence for peace."

Desultory Fighting

Referring to the efforts of General Smith to suppress the insurrection in Samar, General Chaffee commended them, adding: "If Smith can make a ten-strike in Samar by a vigorous course there, which it is hoped he may do, the influences will be immense toward subduing Malvar, the hardest nut in the basket which we have to crack at this time."

Desultory fighting continued in different quarters. On December 26, 1901, General Chaffee cabled the War Department that a desperate battle had taken place between Company F of the Twenty-first Infantry and bolomen in a gorge in Batangas Province, in which twenty-two of the enemy were killed. For several hours the fight was hand-to-hand, during which two Americans were badly wounded. Samson, leader of the insurgents at Mutasaron, with all his officers and men, surrendered, with twenty-eight cannon and forty-five rifles.

The question whether our Government held that a state of war

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existed in the Philippines at the close of 1901 was settled in the affirmative by Secretary Root in the latter part of December. In a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury he made a distinct declaration to that effect in disposing of a claim of Horton W. Stickle, First Lieutenant of Engineers, who had asked the value of certain books lost in transit from West Point to Manila.

The American Isthmian Canal Treaty

The new convention, or treaty, between Great Britain and the United States, regarding the construction of the American Isthmian Canal, superseded the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. It guaranteed the neutrality of the canal, and that by the United States alone, whose right to fortify it was recognized. Thus, it will be seen, that all the rights ever claimed by our statesmen regarding the use or control of this waterway were recognized by Great Britain and the absolute triumph of our contention obtained.

On December 16, 1901, the Senate, by a vote of 72 to 6, ratified the Hay-Pauncefote canal treaty, without amendment. Several were offered but defeated. In announcing his support of the treaty Senator Mason said that it was an American treaty for American people. He had opposed the treaty two years before because there were concessions to Great Britain to which he could not consent. In the pending treaty, however, Great Britain had abandoned every position previously assumed, and guaranteed to the United States the right to build, control and defend the canal in its own way. The Senator held

Success of American Diplomacy

that under the new treaty discrimination could be granted to the American coastwise trade, because Great Britain, understanding our present laws in that respect, had agreed to the treaty, well aware that American ships, sailing from an American port through the canal to a Pacific port, were engaging in American coastwise trade. Everything for which he had contended two years before had been granted and he heartily supported the treaty.

About the beginning of the year 1902, considerable comment was aroused in political circles by the appointment of Governor Leslie M.

Governor Shaw Appointed Secretary of the Treasury

Shaw, of Iowa, as Secretary of the Treasury, in place of Hon. Lyman J. Gage, resigned. Governor Shaw entertained advanced views, both on the tariff and financial questions, being opposed to any present revision of the former, and going into office an avowed advocate of a system of currency by which the National Banks would be permitted to issue bills based on a percentage of their assets. This plan, known as the "asset currency system," he declared, "contained no element of danger except popular prejudice." Many leading Republicans, however, had expressed themselves as opposed to the scheme, and the

PANAMA CANAL. LENGTH. 40 MILES. TIME OF TRANSIT, 11 HOURS AND 14 MINUTES.

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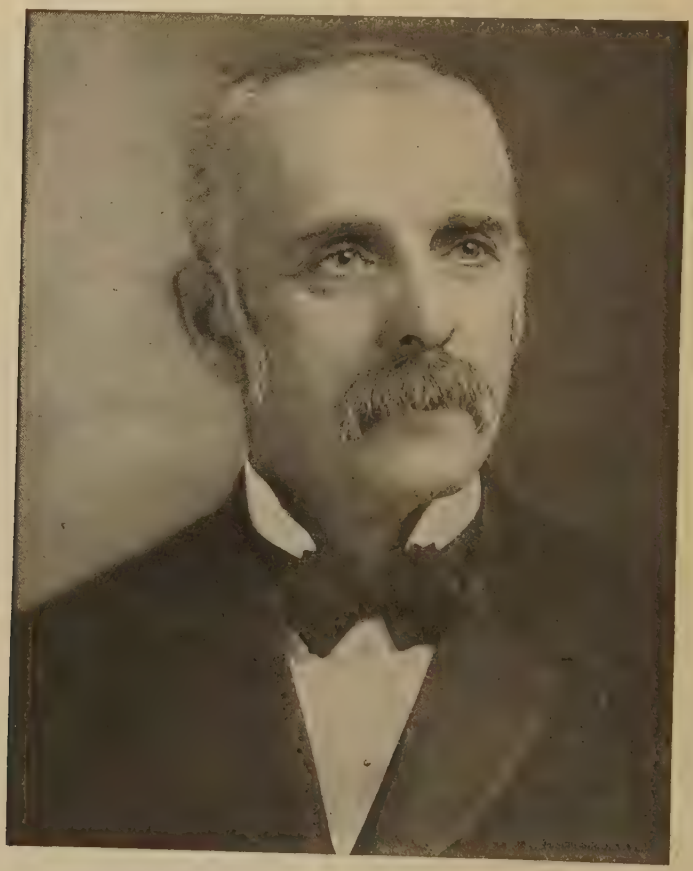
appointment of Governor Shaw aroused no little speculation among his political associates. In his own State the party had divided on the tariff issue, one section favoring revision and the other opposing it, and the Governor had aligned himself unequivocally with the latter. His appointment, therefore, seemed to indicate that the President's leaning was toward the most advanced wing of the party.



HON. LESLIE M. SHAW, SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY

Sketch of Secretary Shaw

The new Secretary is a native of Vermont, and was in his fifty-fourth year when he assumed charge of the Treasury. He removed to Iowa at the age of twenty-one, and thereafter remained permanently identified with the interests of that State. For a time

he pursued the occupation of a farmer, but at length attended school at Cornell College, and was afterward graduated from the law department of the Iowa State University. He then began the practice of his profession at Denison, where he resided until his election as Governor, retiring from that office to become Secretary of the National Treasury.

Optimistic Views of Gov. Taft

Mr. Wright, acting civil governor of the Philippines, in a letter received by Governor Taft, in March, 1902, stated that, in the whole of Luzon, there were not three hundred insurgents in arms, and declared that the situation had never been more encouraging. Governor Taft added to these statements his belief that, by the beginning of 1904, affairs in the island would be so settled that the people would govern themselves like those of any other territory of the United States. Despite the assurances, however, and the generally hopeful feeling, vicious outbreaks continued, the details of which are uninteresting because of their sameness. An important step was taken by the Government on July 4, 1902, when President Roosevelt issued, at Manila, a proclamation, which declared the insurrection in the Philippines at an end and peace established in all parts of the archipelago, except in the country inhabited by the Moro tribes. Complete amnesty was granted to all who had taken part in the insurrection, including those involved in the outbreak against Spain as early as August, 1896, and pardon was extended to the natives who might have violated the laws of warfare, but withheld from persons already convicted of criminal offenses. At the same time with the issuance of this proclamation all military control was withdrawn, it being the intention to place the Philippine Government wholly in the hands of the civil authorities, who were to be freed from all vexatious legacies of political offenses left from the military administration. The President also promulgated to the army a Fourth of July address, expressing his appreciation of the work of the land forces in the Philippines and Cuba. General Chaffee was relieved of the further performance of the duties of military governor, the office being discontinued.

Presidential Proclamation

Relief of Gen. Chaffee

The proclamation of amnesty liberated about 1,800 Filipinos, most of whom were military prisoners. On July 14, a general order was issued at the War Department relieving General Chaffee from command of the Military Department of the Philippines and assigning him to command of the Department of the East, with headquarters in New York City. In deference to his wishes, however, the order did not

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take effect until September 30, 1902. General MacArthur, therefore, was in command of the Department of the East during the interesting demonstrations of the navy, in August and September, against the seacoast defenses of New York and New England.

A delicate question arose concerning the lands of the Friars in the Philippines. These Friars were so disliked by the natives that it would have been inviting revolt and bloodshed to attempt to return them to their former standing. Governor Taft, by order of the Secretary of War, stopped at Rome, on his way to Manila, and made, not an official but a "business call" upon the Pope respecting the property named. The questions in dispute could be settled by the courts, but it would require years; whereas, the method named need not take more than a few weeks. No confiscation of church property in the islands was contemplated, nor could such a policy be carried out. The proposal of Secretary Root was to buy the lands of the Friars at a generous valuation, on condition that they, the Friars, retire from the islands or give place to other agencies. The terms of the treaty of peace with Spain, as well as our Constitution, forbade the forcible expulsion of the Spanish religionists from the Philippines. The United States government purchased 410,000 acres of agricultural land formerly held by the Friars, paying therefor $7,239,000 in gold. It was provided that the lands should be disposed of in small allotments to tenants in contract of sale with easy payments extending over a number of years.

Questions Concerning the Friars

An official statement prepared by Major James Parker, of the Adjutant General's office, covering the period of the Philippine insurrection between February 4, 1899, and April 30, 1902, showed that during that period there were 2,561 engagements with the enemy, and down to July 16, 1902, the number of troops sent to the Philippines was 4,135 officers and 123,803 men. The average strength maintained was 40,000. The casualties were: Killed or died of wounds, 69 officers and 936 men; died from disease, 47 officers and 2,535 men; died from accidents, 6 officers and 125 men; drowned, 6 officers and 257 men; died by suicide, 10 officers and 72 men; murdered, 1 officer and 91 men; total deaths, 139 officers and 2,707 men; total wounded, 2,897. Killed or wounded and deaths other than by disease, 282 officers and 4,177 men; total, 4,470. Percentage of killed and wounded to the strength of the army, 9.7 per cent.

Official Statistics

As a rule there is no such thing as chivalry or real friendship between nations. Selfishness is the basis of all such alliances, and

the allies of today may be the bitterest enemies tomorrow. In all probability, among the powers of Christendom there was not one which did not feel morally certain that the interference of the United States in Cuba was to be, and was intended to be, the first step in the annexation of that island. Probably many of our people believed

TOMAS ESTRADA PALMA, PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CUBA

this in the face of the positive disavowal on the eve of the war with Spain. But our Government gave a proof of its sincerity and unselfishness, such as can not be found in ancient or modern annals.

Tomas Estrada Palma Chosen President of Cuba

Estrada Palma, the eminent Cuban patriot, had been an exile for twenty years, and was a school teacher in Central New York when

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elected first real President of the Cuban Republic. He arrived at Sibara April 20, 1902, and was enthusiastically welcomed to the very port from which he had been taken away a prisoner thirty years before. The same ardent affection was shown toward him at every point of his progress through the island.

Organization of the Cuban Government

The two houses of the Cuban Congress assembled May 5th, and over both floated for the first time the single-starred flag of Cuba; but of course no legal business could be transacted until May 20th, 1902, when the official withdrawal of the United States from Cuba was to take place, and the President-elect was to be inducted into office. The senators were twenty-four in number, the deputies sixty-three. On the day named, which was Tuesday, a national salute of forty-five guns was fired from Morro Castle and Cabanas, whereupon the United States flags, which had floated over those fortresses since American occupation, were lowered and the banner of Cuba hoisted in their place. At the same moment a similar change took place over the palace, the official residence of the Cuban President.

The city was aflame with patriotism, and the surging crowds were in a fever of eagerness to gain a glimpse of the flag which had first been thrown to the breeze by General Cespedeo thirty-four years before. At high noon, in the audience hall of the palace, General Wood, accompanied by American officers in full-dress uniform, and in the presence of the members of Congress, supreme court judges, governors of the provinces, foreign consuls and many prominent Americans, read to President-elect Palma the document of our War Department, which turned over the control of the island to the Republic of Cuba. The new government had to proclaim at once the constitution, with the Platt amendment attached to it, and to assume all the obligations of the United States respecting Cuba in the treaty of Paris. When President Palma had affixed his signature, American control of Cuba ended and henceforward the Cubans were to have home rule under a judiciary, legislature and executive chosen by themselves. The Cabinet selected by President Palma included a Nationalist as Secretary of the Government; a Republican-Autonomist for Department of State; an Independent for Department of Agriculture; a Nationalist for Department of Public Works; a Nationalist for Department of Instruction, and a Republican for Department of Finance. Herbert G. Squiers presented his credentials as American Minister, and was accepted as such May 27th.

The United States Withdraws from Cuba

Thus was launched the Cuban Republic. Whether it is to sail through tranquil seas, or to be wrecked upon the shoals and breakers, only the future can decide.

If you should draw a line north and south in the shape of a crescent, for a distance of three hundred and sixty miles, it would include the group of volcanic islands known as the Lesser Antilles, each of which is a single mountain rising from the sea to a height of from half a mile to a mile. At some remote geologic age these were thrown up by volcanic energy, and in the course of ages have become the most beautiful and alluring islands in the world.

The Martinique Horror

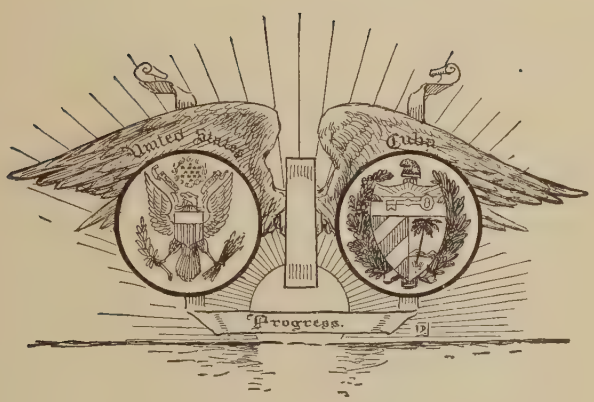
Somewhat north of the center of the group is Martinique, whose city of St. Pierre, on the northwestern coast, holds or rather held an ideal situation. It nestled in apparent security at the foot of the volcano, Mont Pelee, for more than two centuries and a half, while the city itself was an ideal tropical town, with its smart white houses, groups of waving palms, cathedral, its bustling market, wide, sweeping bay, dotted with all kinds of craft, and the motley population of the town itself.

On the morning of May 8, 1902, Pelee, which had been slumbering and muttering for hundreds of years, suddenly burst forth, and in the twinkling of an eye, as may be said, overwhelmed and blotted out St. Pierre and its more than thirty thousand inhabitants. It was one of the most awful visitations recorded in ancient or modern annals, and to many was like that dreadful vision of the Apocalypse, when the heavens shall be rolled together as a scroll, the elements shall melt with fervent heat, and the day of judgment shall burst upon an affrighted world. Subsequent outbreaks took place, and those of September, 1902, destroyed hundreds more of the wretched inhabitants.

This is not the place to give an extended account of the terrifying destruction of St. Pierre, for, happily for us, the Lesser Antilles do not form a part of the United States. But the unparalleled calamity furnished another illustration of the quick, active sympathy of Americans for the misfortunes of others, whether such misfortunes fall upon those within our borders or on those in remote quarters of the globe. Hardly had the appalling news reached this country when Congress made a liberal appropriation in money and provisions, and all needed supplies were rushed to the Caribbean Sea as fast as steam could carry them; and private help was equally as prompt in answering the cries of distress. The United States was first on the spot, and so active

MARTINIQUE. ST. PIERRE TO THE RIGHT. MONT PELEE IN THE DISTANCE

and efficient that the government of France sent its grateful acknowledgements for the charity whose value was measureless. Terrible as are such calamities they have one beneficent result—that of building up and strengthening the "kinship of nations," and perhaps hastening the day when the war-drum shall throb no more and the reign of the brotherhood of man shall begin.



ADMINISTRATION BUILDING LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

CHAPTER CXI

ROOSEVELT'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1901–1905 (*CONCLUDED*)

[*Authorities:* The problem of harmonious relations between Capital and Labor is seemingly as far from solution as ever. Strikes are the rule rather than the exception. While there are not lacking many examples of permanent and fixed good will between employer and employe, the conflict elsewhere is relentless, with no present promise of improvement. Meanwhile, the United States advances steadily to the foremost rank among nations,—a truth shown in the field of diplomacy, by such expositions as that at St. Louis, by the construction of the Panama Canal, the progress in education, science and art, and by the impressive growth in wealth, commerce, manufactures, and military and naval power.]

THE strike of the coal miners in 1902, was universally felt throughout the country. The mutterings of discontent, which had been heard for months, grew into a revolt on May 12, at which time the cost of anthracite coal was $5.45 a ton. When the strike ended it was $25.50, and in many places could not be obtained at any price.

The Great Coal Strike of 1902

At the convention at Hazleton, Penn., it was assumed that 145,000 men would be brought in conflict with the operators. John Mitchell, the president, strongly urged peace, but when the strike was declared, zealously supported the action of the convention. The wages of the miners at that time netted from $60 to $100 a month, consisting of from four to six hours work daily. The miner blasted out the coal, which was gathered by laborers whom he paid, as he also paid for the powder and other necessaries. He averaged six cars a day at a dollar each. The laborers were paid $2 a day by the miner and wrought from eight to ten hours.

The engineers received $60 to $80 a month, and the breaker boys 75 cents a day.

The strikers demanded 20 per cent. increase of wages to miners, an eight-hour work day for men paid by the day, and that 2,240 pounds, instead of 2,750 pounds, should constitute a ton. The laborers were ignored, there being no demand for shorter hours or an increase of wages for them. The employers refused the demand.

JOHN MITCHELL

The strike bore with increasing stringency upon all kinds of business, upon every financial interest, and upon the comfort of the multitudes of homes throughout the country. It became the theme in hundreds of pulpits, and its phases were anxiously discussed by the most prominent citizens and the leading economists. Rioting, incendiarism, mine flooding and bloodshed, accompanied by the loss of a number of lives, spread a reign of terror in the coal regions. The paid police failing to awe the strikers, applications were made to Governor Stone of Pennsylvania for protection, but he declined to grant it.

The New York Board of Trade and Transportation, on June 4, asked President Roosevelt to mediate, but neither he nor J. Pierpont Morgan, to whom a similar appeal was made, responded. Governor Stone having refused on July 10, to order out the National Guard, the situation became so tense that, twenty days later, a part of the State militia took the field under the command of General J. P. S. Gobin.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1902

Matters grew so critical that, on October 1, 1902, President Roosevelt asked President John Mitchell and the leading anthracite coal operators to come to Washington to confer with him. Nothing resulted, as the operators rejected the offer of the miners to arbitrate and to mine coal pending a decision. Affairs became so bad that Governor Stone yielded, October 6, and ordered on duty the whole National Guard of Pennsylvania. This brought 9,000 troops into the disturbed districts.

JUDGE GEORGE GRAY

Meanwhile, President Roosevelt was doing his utmost to induce the miners to go back to work, and Mitchell, and Senators Quay and Penrose held several conferences. The operators remained firm, demanded Federal protection, and the strikers were equally determined. The final negotiations were opened on October 11, when Secretary of War Root visited J. P. Morgan. Two days later, Mr. Morgan submitted to the President the statement of the coal operators, in which they agreed to leave the dispute to arbitration, pending which the mines were to be worked on the condition that the workers were not interfered with by the union men.

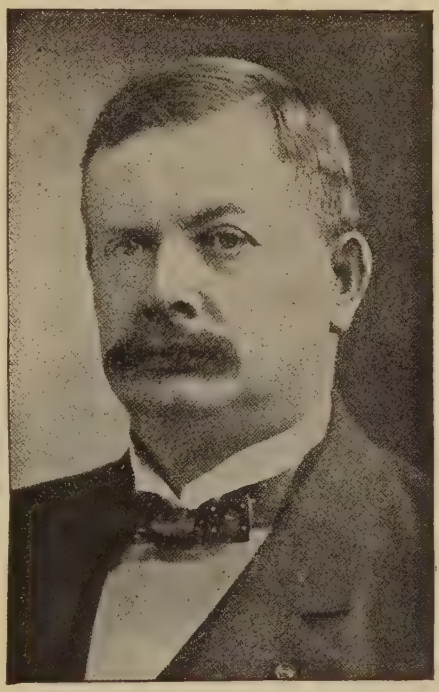
End of the Strike

After consulting with Mr. Mitchell, President Roosevelt, October 16, named the following arbitrators: General John M. Wilson, E. W. Parker, Judge George Gray, Bishop John L. Spalding, E. E. Clark, and Thomas H. Watkins. The strike was practically ended the next day when the miners' Executive Committee accepted the commission. On October 20, the miners' convention assembled at Wilkesbarre, and the next day unanimously voted to return to work,

SUGAR CANE GRINDING IN THE PHILIPPINES

and abide by the decision of the arbitration board which the President had appointed. Within the following three days the miners went back to their places, and nearly all of the mines were opened. It was estimated that the entire cost of the strike to operators, miners, railway men, storekeepers and others, excluding the loss in different lines of industry, was almost $150,000,000.

The report of the Coal Commission decided that neither party to the dispute was wholly right. The miners had a grievance, and the operators were wrong in refusing to give it consideration, for the report adjudged them an increased wage. Some of the miners' claims were impracticable, since the decision was against them on the question whether the coal should be weighed. The report condemned the State of Pennsylvania for compelling the operators to protect their property by a coal and iron police for which they had to pay. It censured the miners for their violence and crimes which were without palliation. The press reported thirteen murders, but the Coal Commission, after full investigation, reduced the number to three. While the adjustment of this controversy was extra-constitutional and extra-legal, yet its acceptance was an impressive illustration of the resistless force of public opinion.



GOVERNOR STONE OF PENNSYLVANIA

The Coal Commission Report

Of the 59 counties in Colorado, 39 produce gold. In 1902, the total value of the gold mined in the State was $28,517,117.46. Of this, Teller County, which includes the famous Cripple Creek mines, yielded $16,931,892.51, or considerably more than all the other counties together. This section, in 1903-4, became the seat of the most formidable and ominous strikes in the history of our country.

Gold Production of Colorado

The Western Federation of Miners was organized at Butte, Montana, in May, 1893. It rapidly became one of the most powerful labor organizations in the United States. It dominated Butte, and other mining camps in Montana, and in Chapter LXXXIX is given an account of the long and savage strike in the Cœur d'Alene field of Idaho, marked by bloodshed and the employment of Federal troops. In the year of its organization, the Federation of Miners took in fourteen unions in Colorado, and the number, in the course of a few months, grew to thirty. Strikes for higher wages or shorter hours followed, accompanied by the inevitable violence which always attends such outbreaks. Governor Waite, who strongly sympathized with the breakers, finally brought about a settlement, which continued in force until August, 1903.

The Western Federation of Miners

At Colorado City, forty miles from Cripple Creek, were three ore-reducing mills, operated mainly by non-union men. Most of these were speedily "unionized," and early in 1903, demands were made for higher wages, shorter hours and the recognition of the union. To strengthen these demands, the Federation served notice upon the mine owners at Cripple Creek, who were shipping ore to Colorado City, that such shipments must stop, because the mines there were "unfair." The Cripple Creek mines were shut down, since the men refused to work. A committee appointed by Governor James H. Peabody brought about a settlement, on the basis that there should be no discrimination between union and non-union men, that the hours should be reduced for some of the miners, a few should receive increased pay, and the union strikers should be re-employed.

Causes of the Strike

A few weeks later, the charge was made that the manager of the Standard Mill at Colorado City was not keeping his agreement. The governor's commission investigated and reported that there was no ground for the accusation. Insisting that the number of union men whom the manager had reinstated was less than had been promised, a second strike was ordered in the mills at Colorado City. It should be added that just before this, the annual convention of the Western Federation of Miners, which was held in Colorado City, adopted socialism as its creed, pledging itself to the promotion of the doctrine through political action, and changed its constitution, which forbade a strike unless ordered by three-fourths of its resident members, so as to give that dangerous power to the

Executive Committee. This committee, on August 10, 1903, ordered a general strike in the Cripple Creek district. The mine owners charged that if this question had been left to the miners themselves, less than a quarter would have voted in favor of the strike. The Federation asserted that their action was based upon the recommendation of the nine local unions, which voted to support the stand taken at Colorado City, and referred the matter for settlement to the district union, made up of delegates from the local unions, and the district union requested the committee to call out the men.

Without attempting to decide this issue, all the 3,300 miners in the Cripple Creek district went on a strike. It will be remembered that every one of these laborers was satisfied with his wages, his hours, and all the conditions surrounding him. It was a little dispute forty miles away that caused the wholesale cessation from work, followed by shocking crimes. The aim of the wholesale walkout was to force the owners to bring such pressure upon the mill managers at Colorado City, that they would reinstate the two-score union men and recognize the union.

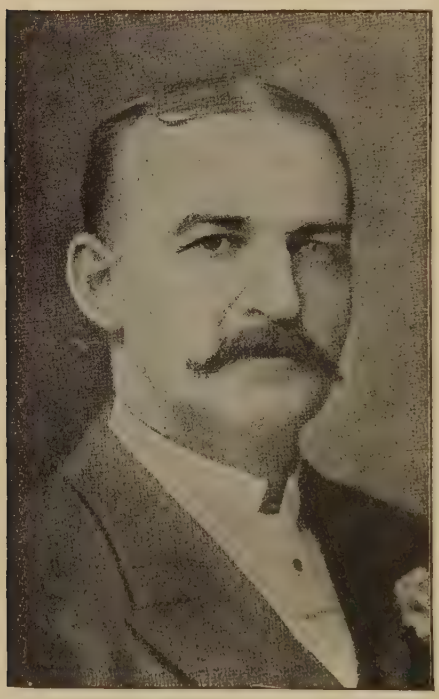
The Mine Owners' Association

When the mine owners were confronted by this grave situation, they were wholly unprepared. They had no organization, for until then they had not believed that anything of that nature was necessary. They lost no time now in getting together. They declared they would submit no longer to the dictation of a body of men, who admitted that they themselves had not the slightest ground for complaint, and persisted in holding their employers responsible for an act that was beyond their control. Such was the formation of the Mine Owners' Association. Never did two hostile forces in war confront each other with more deadly determination than did these representatives of capital and labor.

In explanation of the bitter resentment of the miners, it should be stated that in 1889, the Colorado legislature passed a law making eight hours the legal workday in mines and smelters. This law was declared unconstitutional by the supreme court. An amendment to the constitution, which would permit the enactment of such a law, was submitted to the voters of the State and was carried by 47,000 majority. A bill was drawn up which was an exact copy of the law in force in Utah, but the legislature, which had been elected upon that issue, killed the bill, for reasons which it is not necessary to analyze.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1902

The history of Colorado, for a portion of 1903 and 1904, includes events of a horrifying nature. The union miners were resolute that no non-union men should take their places, and the mine owners were equally determined that they should. Two hundred and fifty strike breakers were imported, and the union captured nearly one-half and sent the others away. The sheriff was in sympathy with the strikers, and when appealed to, swore in only a handful of deputies. The mine owners hired fifty armed guards, but the overwhelming mass of union men speedily gained command of the situation. The former appealed to Governor Peabody, who, in September, 1903, sent troops into the district, the mine owners agreeing to pay all expenses, expecting the State to reimburse them later on.



GOVERNOR JAMES H. PEABODY

The arrival of troops brought peace for the time. They were in charge of Brigadier General Chase and Adjutant General Bell, who erected a military jail, which was speedily dubbed the "bull-pen." The leaders of the strike who had given greatest offense were confined in this jail. Mutual charges of unlawful acts and atrocious outrages were made, and sometimes there was guilt on both sides. The strikers were sullen, revengeful and at times merciless; the military arrogant and guilty of illegal acts. Governor Peabody said: "I am not fighting organized labor as such, and never have been. The law-abiding citizens of Colorado have no fight on the American Federation of Labor or those affiliated with it. The Western Federation of Miners two years ago officially endorsed the principles of Socialism, and these principles, as well as coercion,

Shocking Violence

intimidation, dynamiting, and assassination, are inimical to the best interests of any commonwealth."

In his determination to rid the State of the disturbing element, Governor Peabody forcibly drove out a considerable number, who were warned by the military that they would be shot if they returned. When these men were deported for no other reason than that they were members of the miners' union, the act was without a shadow of legal warrant. No man can be punished until his guilt is proved, and the right of the miners to organize is as clear as their right to breathe.

A Horrifying Crime

It would be useless to attempt to describe the shocking incidents that have marked this outbreak. The miners as a whole are a decent and orderly set of men, but among them were some of the worst miscreants that ever lived. Bad as they were, a number of the guards employed by the mine owners were fully as murderous. Assaults, beatings, killings and all manner of crime became the rule. The crowning atrocity was perpetrated on June 6, 1904, at about 2 o'clock in the morning, when a railway train was approaching the station at Independence, about six miles from Cripple Creek, to take non-union miners home from their work. A heavy charge of dynamite had been placed under the platform and was exploded as the train came opposite. Thirteen men were blown to fragments and nearly as many wounded—some of them mortally. No clew to the fiends was discovered, and martial law was again declared in Teller County. The Portland mine, the only one employing union miners, was ordered to close down on the ground that it was harboring lawless men. On the day of the explosion, the Supreme Court of Colorado sustained Governor Peabody in the measures he had taken for maintaining law and order.

Labor strikes have become so numerous in almost every industry that it is useless to try to give even a list of them.

Opening of the New Pacific Cable

Just before midnight, July 4, 1903, President Roosevelt sent from his home at Oyster Bay, Long Island, the following message to Governor Taft at Manila:

"I open the American-Pacific cable with greetings to you and the people of the Philippines."

In order to give an historic setting to the first message sent under the Pacific, the one section of the wire over which the President's words passed was made up of pieces that were identified with the

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1902

development of telegraphic, telephonic and power transmission, from the time when Morse proved the practicability of the invention. This "historical section" consisted of portions of the wire over which Morse sent his first message, of the wire over which Bell transmitted his first telephone message, a section of the first cable used by Cyrus W. Field to communicate with Europe under the Atlantic, a strip of the wire employed by Edison when he lighted his first incandescent lamp from an electrical lighting station, a section of the wire through which a current was sent in Richmond, Va., to provide a motive power for the first trolley railway, a strip of the wire through which the current of electricity was sent by President Cleveland when he opened the World's Fair in Chicago, and a portion of the cable that carried the first current of electricity from the power plant at Niagara Falls.

An "Historical Setting"

It is worth recording that the above message is the first that actually passed around the world. When Chauncey M. Depew, in 1896, opened the National Electrical Exposition at the Grand Central Palace, it was said and generally believed that his dispatch circumnavigated the globe, but it went to San Francisco, returned through New York to India, China and Japan, whence it was sent back to New York. The time occupied was fifty minutes, and the achievement was justly regarded as a wonderful one.

President Roosevelt's message took the following course: From Oyster Bay it flashed to San Francisco, thence under the Pacific to Honolulu, through the stations at Midway Island, Guam and Manila to Hong Kong, from which point it was sent along wires and cables to the Azores, where it was seized by the Commercial cables and returned to New York.

The Ocean Stretches

Previous to the laying of the Pacific cable, a telegram to Manila had to zigzag through Portugal, Egypt, India and China, traveling 14,000 miles and requiring fifteen separate transmissions. Our government paid $400,000 annually for this service to the Philippines. Since Congress hesitated to undertake so important but expensive work, John W. Mackay offered, in 1901, to lay a cable without subsidy or guarantee. His offer was accepted, and the new cable was begun on December 18, 1902. The route consists of four great ocean stretches: 2,276 miles between San Francisco and Hawaii; 1,254 miles from Hawaii to Midway Island; 2,593 miles from Midway Island to Guam, and thence 1,490 miles to Luzon.

One of the seemingly paradoxical results of this electrical girding of the globe may be thus illustrated. A message sent from New York at 5 o'clock in the morning will reach Honolulu at 11 p. m. on the previous day; Midway Island an hour earlier; Guam at 7 p. m. on the day the dispatch left New York; India at 3 o'clock on the afternoon of its transmission, and back to New York at about 6 o'clock the same morning. In other words, a message leaving New York on one day makes a trip into the previous day, while a dispatch traveling eastward, reaches Guam the next day, and comes back to New York within an hour after it was sent.

Completion of the Alaska Cable

The government cable between Seattle and Sitka was completed August 28, 1904, by the transport *Burnside*, which had been engaged at the work for several months. The Seattle end was buried ten miles down the Sound from the city, where the splicing took place. There was a general celebration and congratulatory messages were sent to the mayors of Juneau, Skagway and Sitka.

The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty Ratified

In our reference to the Isthmian Canal (Chapter CX), it was stated that the Hay-Pauncefote treaty was ratified by the American Senate, on December 6, 1901. This superseded the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850, and was accepted by Great Britain and the United States without change. Like the treaty it displaced, it guaranteed the neutrality of any canal that might be opened through the Central American isthmus, but gave to the United States rights of ownership, regulation and defense, which were not conceded by the former treaty. This was preparatory to definite measures for securing the construction of the canal, and its ownership by the United States.

Passage of the "Spooner Act"

On June 28, 1902, Congress passed what is popularly known as the "Spooner Act," which provided for a canal along the Panama route, with the Nicaragua route as an alternative, provided the President could not secure a title to exisiting concessions and canal property. The President was authorized to purchase, for $40,000,000, the incompleted Panama canal begun in 1882 by a French company, which six years later became bankrupt, provided that the government of Colombia, the owner of Panama, transferred the franchise of that country to the United States, including the right to protect and regulate the canal, with the control of ground along the same, not less than six miles wide. On January 22, 1903, a convention which met these conditions was signed by the Colombian

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1902

Minister at Washington. The outlook could not have been more promising.

History of Panama

It is well to recall that the territory comprised in the Isthmus of Panama was a part of the Spanish colonies until the latter part of 1821, when the inhabitants proclaimed their independence, and by their wish, were incorporated into the then powerful Republic of Colombia, which included the Spanish Viceroyalty of New Granada, Dominion or Captaincy-General of Venezuela and the Presidency of Quito. The Republic of Colombia was dissolved in 1831, and

CATHEDRAL AND PLAZA AT PANAMA

was succeeded by the three republics of Venezuela, Ecuador and New Granada. Probably the ingenuity of man can not devise a system of government, which will bring permanent tranquillity to the so-called republics of Central and South America. The provinces of Panama and Veragua, then composing the Isthmus, revolted in 1840, and declared themselves an independent State, taking the name, a year later, of the State of the Isthmus. Fourteen years after, New Granada enacted a law which made the State of Panama an autonomous entity, with the full rights of self-government. In 1858, the federation became an accomplished fact. By and by, another revolution broke out and the federal system was strongly established. In 1885 came still another civil war, when

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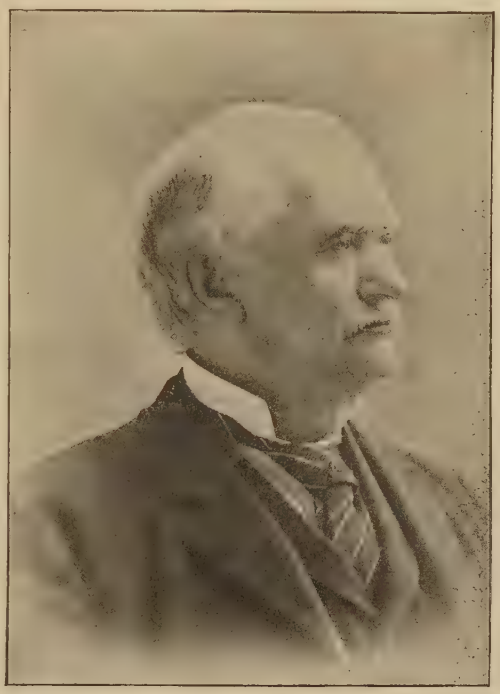
BRIG.-GEN. FREDERICK FUNSTON,
THE OFFICER WHO CAPTURED AGUINALDO.

Colombia resumed her oppressive régime. The hitherto federated United States of Colombia became the centralized Republic of Colombia, and the federated states were immediately reduced to departments.

Terms of Treaty with Colombia

By the terms of the treaty signed by Secretary of State Hay and Dr. Tomas Herran, the latter representing Colombia, the United States agreed to pay Colombia $10,000,000 as a bonus for the privilege of constructing the canal and $250,000 a year as an annual lease. The promise of such an immense sum stirred the cupidity of Colombia. Her people itched to get not only the enormous bonus, but the $40,000,000 pledged to the French company. A powerful lobby, including representatives of our transcontinental railways, wrought with such effect at Bogota that on August 12, 1903, the Colombian Congress rejected the treaty.



SENATOR MORGAN

Revolt of Panama

This action, which may seem surprising, was not wholly unexpected by our Government. Panama wanted the canal, and her people threatened to cut loose from Colombia, if she denied them the boon. When September 22 came and the Colombian Congress let pass its last chance to ratify the treaty because of its expiration by the limitations of its own terms, the mutterings of revolution increased. On the 3d of November, 1903, the prearranged signal was blown by the bugles of the firemen in Panama, and another revolution was set on foot. The people of Colon lost no time in joining the insurgents, and Colombia once more found that the 300,000 population of Panama had slipped from her control.

PERIOD VIII — OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION 1902

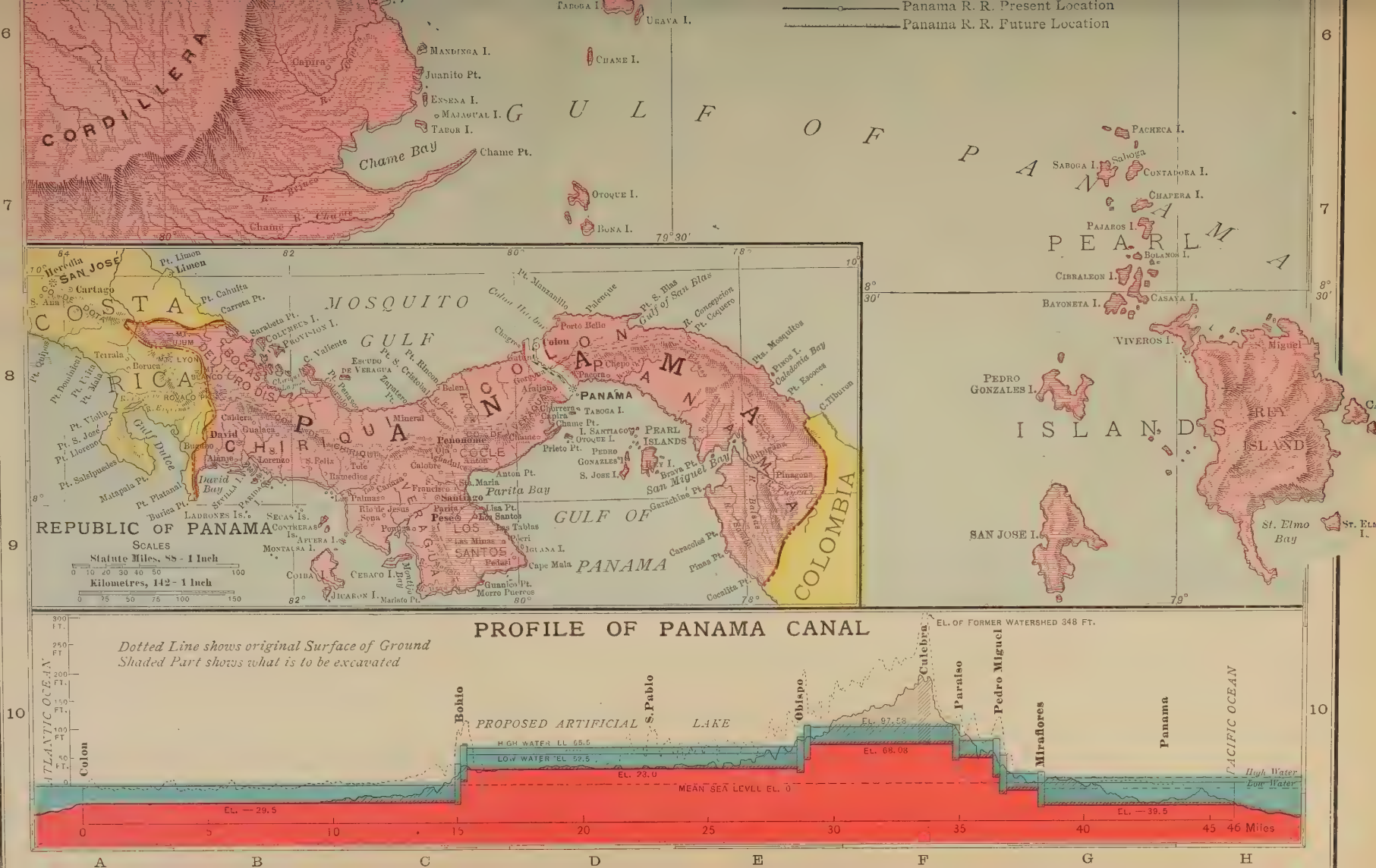
These preparations for revolution were known in Washington, and there was a widespread belief that our Government was not only aware of the impending revolt, but encouraged it. This has been denied. As an official remarked, the revolution cost not one cent of money and not even a line of correspondence. The presence of a gunboat at Panama was no indication of American aid, for we have generally had such a craft there, in accordance with our pledge of nearly sixty years before to keep isthmian transit open and free. President Roosevelt therefore ordered that the route be unimpeded and directed our officials there to prevent any attack by either faction which might disturb trade. These orders were not needed, for the revolution was unanimous and unopposed. The Colombian soldiers withdrew without firing a shot, and the application of Colombia for permission to land troops at the termini of the Panama route to suppress the revolt there and on the line of the railway, was refused.

Success of Revolt

A Government, composed of leading citizens of Panama, was promptly formed and proclaimed on November 3, 1903. The next day the Republic of Panama was established by the designation of three Consuls—J. A. Arango, Tomas Arias, and Fredrico Boyd. On November 5, the Colombian troops left Colon, and Filip Bunau-Varilla was appointed diplomatic agent to the United States. The United States promptly recognized the de facto and de jure Government of Panama. France did the same, November 10. On the 13th of the same month, Mr. Bunau-Varilla was received as Minister of Panama by President Roosevelt, and at the State Department, the de jure Government of Panama being recognized by the United States.

All this, as may be supposed, was wormwood and gall to Colombia. She now guaranteed to pass the original treaty at the next session of the Colombian Congress, provided the United States would restore Panama to her. It will be noted that our guarantee to New Granada was not to prevent any change of Government, but simply to prevent the blocking of the isthmian route. As stated by Secretary Hay, these treaty rights "run with the land." When Colombia succeeded New Granada in control of the section, our treaty obligations passed to Colombia, and, finally, when Panama gained jurisdiction, they were transferred unaffected to her. She now became the sovereign power with which to deal, and it was our duty to prevent any invasion of her territory by Colombia, since such

ISTHMUS OF PANAMA
SHOWING PANAMA CANAL
SCALES.
Statute Miles, 10 = 1 Inch.
Kilometres, 16 = 1 Inch.
Rand, McNally & Co's New 11×14 Map of Isthmus of Panama
Copyright, 1904, by Rand, McNally & Co.
Longitude West from Greenwich
CARIBBEAN SEA
BAY OF PANAMA
Gulf of San Blas
CORDILLERA DE CHEPO
DIVIDE BETWEEN THE ATLANTIC AND THE PACIFIC
Colon
Panama
Chagres
Gatun
Proposed Reservoir
Proposed Artificial Lake
Culebra
Pacora
Chepo
Bayano
Portobello
Point Manzanillo
Point Pescador
Point Cocal
Pt. Gorda
Naranjos I.
Saragosa
Monkey Hill
Monte Lirio
Tiger Hill
Lion Hill
Agua Clara
Lagarto
Lagartero
Rio Pina
Pt. Diego
Agua Sucia
La Soledad
Santa Rita
Alhajuela
Juan Diaz
Old Panama Ruins
Panama Road
Petillo Point
Chepillo I.
Bruja Point
Guinea Pt.
La Boca
Culebra I.
Quenco I.
Pt. San Blas
Port Escribanos
Escribanos Bank
Tabor I.
Farallon Sucio
Isla Grande
Garote Harbor
Boqueron Point
Point Jose Point
Manzanillo
Duarte Islands
Fort Lesseps
San Cristoval Bay
Rio Cidra
Paenquo
Rio Chagres
Rio Gatun
Rio Pequeni
Rio Ancho
Rio Indio
Rio Piedras
Rio Pacora
Rio Chico
Rio Chepo
Rio Mandinga
Rio Caimito
Rio Lagartos
Rio Tapia
Rio Jesus Maria
Rio Lagartas
Rio Cascajal
Rio Calzones
Rio Trinidad
Rio Obispo
Rio Gigante
Rio Grande
Rio de los Indios
Rio Caimito
Canal de San Blas
Carti
Carti Gap
Simandi Gap
Mandinga
Port Chagres
Manzanillo I.
Colon Harbor
Mindi
Fort Terrable
Tide ends
Tapadera
Juan Diaz
Pericoligero
Chorrera
Caimito
Agua Salud
Gamboa
Empire
Culebra
Cerro Somboy
Co. Viejo de Cano
Co. de los Hormigueros
Co. Pelado
Co. Chilibre
Peñon Grande
Co. Galera
Co. de Cabra
Co. de Pisa
Co. Bruja
Co. Algarrobo
Co. Colorado
Co. de Ea.
Pedro Miguel Locks
Miraflores Locks
Gatun Locks
Obispo Locks
Paraiso Locks
Tabernilla Dam
Gatun Dam
Alhajuela Dam
Miraflores Lake
Gatun Lake
Culebra Cut
Chagres River
Gatun Spillway
Gatun Dike
Gatun Locks
Miraflores Locks
Pedro Miguel Locks
Obispo Locks
Paraiso Locks
Tabernilla Dam
Gatun Dam
Alhajuela Dam
Miraflores Lake
Gatun Lake
Culebra Cut
Chagres River
Gatun Spillway
Gatun Dike


Panama R. R. Present Location
Panama R. R. Future Location
CORDILLERA
Capira
Chame Bay
Chame Pt.
Chame
R. Chame
Mandinga I.
Juanito Pt.
Ensena I.
Majagual I.
Tabor I.
Taboga I.
Urava I.
Chame I.
Otoque I.
Bona I.
G U L F O F P A N A M A
79°30'
Pacheca I.
Saboga I.
Saboga
Contadora I.
Chapera I.
Pajaros I.
P E A R L I S L A N D S
Bolanos I.
Cibraleon I.
Casaya I.
Bayoneta I.
Viveros I.
Pedro Gonzales I.
Miguel
Rey
Island
St. Elmo Bay
San Jose I.
C O S T A R I C A
MOSQUITO GULF
CHIRIQUI
COLON
PANAMA
COCLE
Parita Bay
San Miguel Bay
GULF OF PANAMA
COLOMBIA
REPUBLIC OF PANAMA
SCALES
Statute Miles, 88 - 1 Inch
Kilometres, 142 - 1 Inch
PROFILE OF PANAMA CANAL
Dotted Line shows original Surface of Ground
Shaded Part shows what is to be excavated
EL. OF FORMER WATERSHED 348 FT.
PROPOSED ARTIFICIAL LAKE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Colon
Bohio
S. Pablo
Obispo
Culebra
Paraiso
Pedro Miguel
Miraflores
Panama
HIGH WATER EL. 85.5
LOW WATER EL. 52.5
EL. 97.58
EL. 68.08
EL. 23.0
MEAN SEA LEVEL EL. 0
EL. — 29.5
EL. — 39.5
High Water
Low Water
0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 46 Miles

invasion would disturb trade over the isthmian route. In other words, the secession of Panama from its parent government was forcibly sustained by the United States. Ignoring diplomatic channels, however, Colombia sent a protest to the United States Senate, November 16, 1903, against the course of our government in this matter. The following day Minister Bunau-Varilla addressed a note to the representatives in Washington of all powers asking the recognition of the government de jure of Panama. On the 18th, Secretary Hay and Mr. Bunau-Varilla signed a treaty providing for the necessary

SCENE ALONG THE PANAMA CANAL

Concessions Made for the Cause

concessions to the United States for the building of a canal along the Panama route. This treaty was ratified six days afterward by the Provisional Government of Panama. A few days later, General Reyes, as the representative of Colombia, arrived in Washington to see whether steps could not be taken to restore the sovereignty of his government over the Isthmus.

Ratification of Treaty

On November 30, Germany recognized the Republic of Panama, thereby tacitly approving the terms of the Hay-Bunau-Varilla treaty, which was ratified without amendment by the government of Panama, December 2. On the 8th, marines from the cruiser *Dixie* were

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landed at Colon, and took position at Empire on the Panama Railway. On January 24, 1904, the Senate decided to make public the canal treaty, which was ratified by the Senate, February 23. The vote was 66 to 14, fourteen Democratic senators voting in the affirmative.

Business Completed

The stupendous business transaction was consummated on May 4, 1904, when the property of the Panama Canal Company was formally transferred to the United States. It took place at Panama when Major Mark Brooke, of the Engineer Corps of the United States army, representing the Canal Commission, received the keys of the buildings of the property from Mr. Renaudin, the representative of the New Panama Canal Company on the isthmus. The American flag was hoisted over the canal offices in the Cathedral Plaza, and the historic event completed. Attorney-General Knox had arranged the complicated steps of paying for the property. The $40,000,000 was to be divided among several parties in accordance with the French Court decisions. All those concerned agreed to an arrangement by which the immense sum named was deposited with Morgan and Company, which firm was to make the proper disbursements.

Bill for the Government of Panama

The bill for the government of Panama was passed by the Senate April 15, 1904. The President was authorized, upon the acquisition of the property, to take possession of the ten-mile strip running three miles out in the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific, embracing the islands in the Bay of Panama. The Canal Commission was empowered to exercise on the strip all the powers granted to the United States for the control, use and occupation of the ceded land. The Commission was given the power to make and enforce laws, and such ordinances as might be necessary in the cities of Panama and Colon. A bill of rights, practically the same as was given to the Philippines, was granted to the citizens, and the immigration laws of the United States were substantially enacted for the zone. The appointing and pardoning power for the tract was given to the Commission, whose head was to make his permanent home on the isthmus. The House amendment to this bill conferred upon the President full power of Government until the expiration of the Fifty-eighth Congress.

Probable Cost of Canal

Now that this gigantic enterprise is assured, it is interesting to consider the estimated cost to the United States. A reputable authority makes this $184,233,358, not including the bonus of $10,000,000 to

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THE BATTLE OF MANILA, MAY 1, 1898

Panama. The total amount of excavation, up to our purchase of the rights, was about 81,000,000 cubic yards. Of this only 40,000,000 cubic yards are available for the waterway proposed in 1899-1900 by the Canal Commission of which Rear Admiral Walker was president. This Commission estimated that the total amount of excavation necessary, exclusive of the Bohio dam and the Giganti spillway, would be 94,863,703 cubic yards. About three-fifths of the entire work, therefore, remains to be done.

REAR ADMIRAL WALKER

Regarding the purchase of the Panama Canal franchise, John F. Wallace, chief engineer of the Isthmian Canal, says:

"It was the best investment that the United States Government ever made. No matter if it did cost $200,000,000, no matter if it does take at least eight years to complete this waterway, it will make the American Government the greatest Power on the face of the earth.

"When the people here in the States talk of the enormous amount which was expended on the Panama Canal route they do not realize what the Government obtained. They imagine that it was only a franchise. But in addition there were countless railroad cars, locomotives, steam shovels, dredge boats and supply houses filled with stores which no railroad company operating in the United States can exceed. That was a part of our purchase. And I want to state to you right here that it was a good one.

Value of the Purchase

"Some of the people who have opposed the construction of the canal have said that it could not be built for $200,000,000. I have

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been over the ground. Give me that sum of money and I will build the canal complete and turn it over to the Government inside of eight years.

"They say that it will be impossible to get labor to complete the work. It can be done with from 10,000 to 12,000 men. Half of these would be skilled workmen, the remainder laborers. They say that the climate is bad and that a white man can not live there. Well, I have lived there during the worst seasons of the year, and in the warmest weather I never found the thermometer above 95, and always found it necessary to cover myself with a blanket at night."

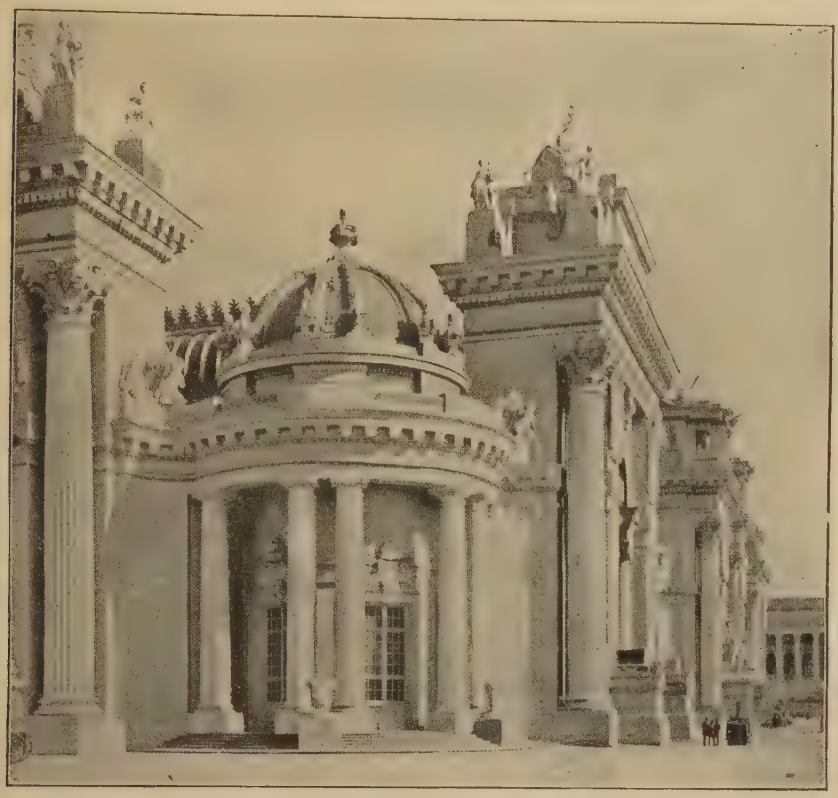
We have learned of the purchase of the Territory of Louisiana from the French Emperor, Napoleon Bonaparte, on April 30, 1803. The formal transfer took place at New Orleans on the 20th of the following December, and at St. Louis for Upper Louisiana, March 10, 1804. By a stroke of the pen, as may be said, the area of the United States was more than doubled, and the young nation became the dominant power for all time in the Western Hemisphere.

Extent of the Louisiana Purchase

President Jefferson gained the core of the American continent, which to-day contains one-fourth of the population, produces more than half the country's wheat, and nearly one-half its corn and its food products. Missouri has more people now than all the United States had in 1803, and the combined population of Philadelphia, New York, Boston and Baltimore at that time was less than the number of residents in St. Louis in 1904. The Exposition was a magnificent illustration of our growth and progress.

The celebration of the centennial of this epoch-making event was held in St. Louis from May 1 to December 1, 1904 The buildings were appropriately dedicated April 30, 1903, the proceedings taking place in the grand hall of the Liberal Arts Building. Addresses were made by ex-Senator Thomas H. Carter, of Montana, chairman of the United States Commissioners; David R. Francis, President of the Exposition, and Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States. The orator of the day was ex-President Cleveland, the diplomatic corps and many distinguished Americans being present. On May 1, the diplomatic representatives of foreign powers, and others made addresses in the same hall, and, on the following day, Governor Alexander M. Dockery of Missouri, welcomed the governors of the other States, who were present at the dedication ceremonies.

The impressive features of the Exposition were its vastness and variety. Nothing of the like was ever seen anywhere. The buildings were huge, the distances immense. Thus a visitor could stroll through the Palace of Agriculture, for nine miles, all the time gazing upon something new and interesting, and yet not once



ENTRANCE TO PALACE OF LIBERAL ARTS, LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

retrace his steps. Fifty million dollars were expended in making this Exposition an illustration of the advancement of our country during the previous century of its history.

Power and Electricity and Machinery

Dividing the almost endless features into general groups, the first to which attention was drawn was that of Power and Electricity and Machinery. This exhibit showed the amazing progress made in the preceding few years, and indicated the still more marvelous advance that is now going on. New methods were shown of producing electricity, and the turbine and the producer gas-engine

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told the coming of a revolution in that field. More and more, machinery takes the place of human hands, and the empire of mind over matter is supreme.

Electrical Activities

The world never saw such a comprehensive exhibition of electrical activities. No subject is more fascinating and inviting than that of electrical investigation, and the achievements therein surpass the fancies of the wildest dreamers of a decade previous. Two perfect electrical locomotives were shown, and there was a model of the one-rail system intended to connect Manchester and Liverpool, at a speed of more than a hundred miles an hour. There were

TOWERS OF PALACE OF MACHINERY BUILDING

recording telephones, high-speed telegraph transmitters, new storage-batteries, means of sending telegrams from one typewriter to another,—all these heralding greater things to come in the near future.

Locomotive Exhibit

In the middle of the Transportation Building stood a locomotive and tender weighing 160 tons, with the appropriate name "The Spirit of the Twentieth Century," and the surrounding sixteen acres revealed the whole evolution of transportation. The first vague idea of a high-pressure boiler was a large kettle, mounted on wheels over a fire, and was invented by William Murdock of England in 1723. There was also a model of the engine with rough wheels made by George Stephenson in 1812, and models of the three locomotives that took part in the historical test from London to

Manchester. They were Stephenson's *Rocket*, the *Sans Pareil* and the *Novelty*. The *Rocket* attained a speed of 30 miles an hour and won the prize. Before this trial took place, John Hedley, an American, constructed the *Puffing Billy*, of which a model was also shown, as there was of the *Tom Thumb*, built by Peter Cooper; the DeWitt Clinton train, consisting of an engine and three cars; the first 8-wheeled locomotive, which weighed 22 tons, and was operated on the Baltimore & Ohio Railway. In contrast with the last was displayed a Mallet-type of a freight locomotive of the same road, weighing 233 tons, the largest and heaviest ever built. It should be stated that in many mines in England, France and even Japan, the electric locomotive is rapidly coming into use. It is intended that trains shall thus be drawn through the Hudson River tunnel, as they have been drawn for some time through the tunnel near Baltimore.

The greatest English railway corporation, the London and Northwestern, showed the saloon coach built for Queen Adelaide, wife of William IV. and King Edward's private car, which is not as magnificent as many private American cars. A model was exhibited of the Firth of Forth Bridge, the largest cantilever structure in the world. Among the interesting facts learned by the visitor is that the first railway in England was opened in 1825, and connected Stockton and Darlington. George Stephenson handled the engine and a horseman rode in front to keep the track free of obstructions. The first trolley line in the United States began running in 1877, at Richmond, Virginia. The cars were small, the seats hard and they were heated by stoves.

Automobiles

The American automobiles on exhibition numbered 140, beginning with the one that had hard work to make twelve miles an hour, and showing the other that had no trouble in running four times as fast. In this exhibit was the gasoline automobile, which ran from San Francisco to New York in 62 days. No railways in the world approach those of the United States in the luxury of equipment.

The Cunard Line exhibited a model of their first steamer, the *Britannia*, which made the voyage from Southampton to New York in 14 days and 8 hours, and was of 403 horse power. Beside it was the model of the *Carmania*, not completed at the time, of 65,000 horse power, which was intended to make the same trip in about one-third of the time.

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Air brakes came into use in 1872. For years they operated by checking the cars one after the other. The high-speed automatic air-brake acts simultaneously and will stop both sections of a train that has broken apart. Another highly useful invention is the magnetic brake, which will bring to a halt a trolley car, going at high speed, in less than a second. Another device instantly checks a street car in case the motorman suddenly becomes helpless.

Domesti Educational Exhibit

The exhibits of the improved methods of education showed a marked similarity among the different States. The building devoted to the display had a floor space of 290,000 square feet, and contained seven groups, consisting of elementary, secondary and higher education; special instruction in fine arts, in agriculture, in commerce and industry, and particular forms of education. Manual training is taught in nearly every grade of schools, but is properly subordinated to what may be called, the old standard of the "three R's," which must always remain indispensable in a child's education. As evidence of what can be accomplished in this fascinating field, it may be stated that the famous Newcomb pottery was first made at the Sophia Newcomb College, of New Orleans, and is still in the hands of ladies who are or have been students at that institution. The furniture of the Minnesota State Building was fashioned by pupils of the high schools of Minneapolis and St. Paul. The drawings, sculpture, pottery and other work of the students of the Chicago Art Institute, the Boston Normal Art School, the Boston Museum School of Fine Arts, the Pennsylvania School of Fine Arts, and the St. Louis School of Fine Arts, gave a good idea of the higher art education of the boys and girls.

Although collegiate education made a marked advance in the preceding decade, it can not be said that the exhibits in that line surpassed those at Chicago in 1893. Only Harvard and Johns Hopkins gave prominence to their professors' work, but the displays of these two great institutions were very interesting and instructive. Nor can it be said that the exhibit of the technical schools was commensurate with its importance.

The Foreign Educational Exhibit

Of the foreign exhibits, the German was the most complete, and demonstrated that country's superiority in the field of science and higher instruction. The whole range of German education was shown in the most comprehensive manner. While the French display was not so extensive it gave an excellent idea of the educational progress of that country. The British exhibit was small, but the

TRANSFER OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE, MARCH 10, 1804.

decorative work was unrivaled, and the English method of instructing defectives is unsurpassed. Italy showed the importance she attaches to crafts teaching and art. Most of Mexico's display was manual work, the lace-making and embroidery being much admired. Although Sweden's exhibit was small, it was probably the most complete among all the expositions of actual school-life in that country.

The Forestry and Fish Exhibit

Nothing could be more perfect than the exhibits of the methods employed by different countries in preserving and utilizing forests; the hunting and fishing equipments, and the wild animals and countless varieties of fish. It may be said that the whole outdoor world was brought under roof to delight and instruct the multitude of visitors to St. Louis.

RESTAURANT IN PHILIPPINE BUILDING

The Philippine Reservation

To many, the Philippine Reservation was the most interesting and enjoyable. One could there learn more of our recent acquisition than he could acquire by months of travel or study in the Philippines themselves. Before his eyes were the real condition of the savage tribes; the advanced civilization, and the proof of what has been accomplished by the United States during its brief occupancy of the Archipelago. The exhibit covered forty-seven acres, which exceeded that of any other display. The Moros, who are the river pirates of Luzon, were housed in the bamboo huts, on the southern shore of Arrow Head Lake, the northern boundary of the reservation. Of the three bridges which crossed the lake, the central one was a reproduction of the Bridge of Spain which spans the Pasig at Manila, and led to the Walled City, which showed the kind of fortifications used three centuries ago, to keep off the Dutch and Chinese invaders. The reservation itself recalled Manila to all

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who had ever visited that city. The Fish and Game Building contained specimens of the water buffalo, the wild buffalo and the wild boar, with hundreds of fish found in the Philippines. Who will ever forget the clams whose shells were five feet wide? The relief map of the islands was 75 feet wide and 110 feet long, and was the work of a Jesuit father. It gave the best idea attainable of the islands. A statue of Magellan, the discoverer of the Philippines, stood in the middle of a reproduction of a section of Manila, and, as has been stated, every phase of development was shown from the almost naked Igorots and Negritos in their primitive huts, to the beautiful sculpture, paintings, products of the looms, and the

BUILDING IN JAPANESE VILLAGE

handiwork of the schools. The conquering Stars and Stripes floated not only over soldiers, but over teachers, who sowed good seed in the waiting soil and the harvest has been abundant. The schools have increased four-fold and English is universally taught. Manual training forms a part of the instruction, and the specimens of weaving, embroidery, basket-making, carving and painting were not only numerous but showed astonishing proficiency. One might spend weeks on the Philippine Reservation and still find much that was new and instructive.

Japanese Exhibit

In many respects the most extraordinary exhibit was that of Japan. It told the marvelous story of the half century's advancement of that people from savagery to the highest plane of civilization. Although the Imperial Government knew that war with

UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY UNIFORMS, SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

Russia was near at hand, if appropriated nearly a million dollars for a national pavilion at St. Louis, and the business firms of the country eagerly sought opportunities for their exhibits. These were made by chambers of commerce and by individuals. It would require a volume to do justice to the display of manufactures, of mines and metallurgy, of education, agriculture, forestry and fish, sculpture, painting and pottery, and the varied industries of the country.

German Exhibit

The nearest approach to the Japanese exhibit was that of Germany. Numerous models, appliances and pictures showed the full range of her classical, medical, technical, scientific and historical education. The empire drew lavishly upon her wealth of resources and achievements for the charm and instruction of the United States and the rest of the world, with the result that in many respects it stood peerless and unapproachable.

British Exhibit

The British exhibit had a charm of its own. The visitor not only saw how the looms and spindles did their work, and how machines made bread, but looked upon the products themselves. There were models of English country houses; laces, silks and embroideries; panel paintings; the Jubilee presents of Queen Victoria, worth $6,000,000, and an illustration of the whole British educational system.

Other Foreign Exhibits

In the French Building were displayed busts of distinguished native writers and statesmen, exquisite tapestries and decorated furniture, allegorical paintings, sculpture, Sèvres porcelain and carvings. Canada made a striking exhibit of forestry, of Klondike gold, of its various mineral resources, and of paintings, showing the various steps from the first breaking of the soil by the husbandman to the fruitful and productive farm. Austria demonstrated the artistic progress of the different and frequently clashing peoples of Austria-Hungary. The Swedish Building, erected by popular subscription, was a reproduction of a comfortable farmer's home of the seventeenth century. The Holland Building, also built by the public, was modeled after a quaint old Dutch home. It may not be known that the first railway train on the continent of Europe began running in 1835, between Antwerp and Brussels, and the visitor to the Belgian Building was not allowed to forget that in that thickly populated country was held the most important international congresses of modern days. All the industrial display of Belgium was in this building. China's exhibit, rich in embroidered silks,

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carvings, ivory, sandal and teak wood; was about what she would have shown at the time Columbus discovered America, for the Yellow Empire has stood still for centuries.

Few countries, however, have made more rapid progress in late years than Mexico under her wise and patriotic President Diaz. This was illustrated in some respects at the Exposition by her display of shoes and cashmere cloth, now manufactured at home, instead of imported. She also made a fine exhibit of silks, hats, carved furniture and onyx. Italy showed massive vases at each side of the colonnade in front of her building, typifying her greeting to the United States by wireless telegraphy, thus honoring the name of Marconi, one of her illustrious sons. Relief plaster figures symbolized her advancement in art, science and commerce, and naturally there was a wealth of marble statuary. The burden of Brazil's exhibit was coffee, her most widely known product, which in some years has been five times as great as that of all the other coffee-growing countries in the world. Cuba's first display as an independent nation was a reproduction of a fine Havana residence, with tobacco and sugar as the main features. The articles shown by Siam were from the Royal Museum at Bangkok and made known the advance her people have made in technical skill and art forms in the course of a hundred years. The East India Building contained dazzling varieties of oriental wares. Coffee was the main exhibit of the Argentine Republic Building, while Nicaragua gave a good idea of the medicinal vegetable productions of that country.

Anthropology Exhibit

The anthropology exhibit was a record of the development of man from pre-historic times. There were seen the aborigines of Japan, whose ancestry is unknown; the tall Patagonians; the reserved Cocopa Indians of Mexico and Lower California, and many representatives of the various tribes of American Indians. There was a representation of the cave-men of the remote ages, and their primitive method of living; of the Egyptian and Central American civilizations, and of our own mound builders, of whom only ruins remain. The Malay race was shown in the Philippine Reservation. The Mongolians at the Chinese exhibit; the Ainu and the African pygmies were grouped by themselves, while the shadow of the Caucasian was over all. The study of these various types must always be of the profoundest interest, for they form the leaves of the majestic volume, of which only a few pages have as yet been translated by their descendants.

Display of the Different States

The display of the different States made the heart of every American glow with patriotic pride. Naturally Missouri took the lead. Over the main entrance was the inscription: "Embracing within her confines the elements of an empire devoted to all the arts and sciences that advance civilization, Missouri, the central State of the Louisiana Purchase, greets her sister States and welcomes the world." Right royal was the response to the greeting. An adequate description of the various State buildings and their exhibits would require hundreds of pages of statistics and graphic writing. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition will always remain one of the grandest object lessons of history.

Density of Population

The *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society*, in 1904, made an interesting comparison of the results of the censuses of the principal civilized nations. The following table shows the total population of such countries with the rate of decennial increase and the density of population, expressed in terms of the number of inhabitants per square mile:

Country.	Date.	Population.	Per Ct. Decennial Increase.	Density of Population per Sq. Mile.
United States	1900	76,303,387	21	26
England and Wales	1901	32,523,243	12	557
Germany	1900	56,345,014	14	269
France	1896	38,517,975	0	189
Spain	1900	13,078,497	3	92
Switzerland	1900	3,212,551	10	207
Norway	1900	2,231,395	12	18
Belgium	1900	6,744,532	11	593
Netherlands	1899	5,103,924	13	403
Austria	1900	26,107,304	9	225
Hungary	1900	19,200,000	11	153
Russia	1897	128,922,172	..	15
Sweden	1899	5,097,402	7	30
India	1901	294,266,701	8	188
Japan	1898	43,760,754	..	296
Chili	1895	2,712,145	7	9
Peru	1896	4,610,000	..	7
Denmark	1901	2,447,441	13	160

From the above there appears to be little relation between the density of population and the rate of increase, some of the most densely settled countries apparently having as great a rate of increase as the most sparsely populated ones. Thus, England and Wales, Belgium and the Netherlands, which are the most densely settled portions of the civilized world, are exceeded in rate of

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increase only by Germany and Denmark among European nations; while, on the other hand, France, which is not a densely settled country, according to European standards, is not increasing in numbers.

"Centre of Population"

An interesting fact is made public after each Federal census, when the "centre of population" of the United States is learned. Naturally it moves slowly westward. At the beginning of the present century it was a little north of the valley of the Ohio River, and was for a number of years in Southern Indiana. The centre of negro population in 1900 was at De Kalb County in Alabama, on the Georgia border, several miles south of Tennessee. It will be noted, therefore, that while the centre of white population moves westward, that of the negro population advances southwest, as it has been doing for more than a century, traveling in turn through Virginia, North Carolina and Georgia, until it has reached Alabama. Every decade shows a divergence of the two centres, indicating that the races are steadily getting farther apart.

Alaska Boundary Award

The Alaskan boundary question had been pressing upon Canada and the United States for a long time before it was settled by a treaty signed by Secretary Hay and Sir Michael Herbert, the British Ambassador, on January 24, 1903. The Canadian miners insisted upon getting through the Klondike to the sea without crossing American territory, while the Americans maintained their right to the coast line and the control of the ports. The treaty called for a reference of all the boundary questions to a mixed tribunal, three on each side, to decide the interpretation to be placed on the treaty of 1825 between Great Britain and Russia, which defined the boundaries separating Alaska and British America. The treaty was ratified by the Senate February 11, by Great Britain February 16, and proclaimed March 3. The United States Commissioners were Secretary of War Elihu Root and Senators Henry Cabot Lodge and George Turner. Those of Great Britain were: Lord Chief Justice Alverstone, Sir Louis A. Jetté, and A. B. Aylesworth, the last two being Canadians. The Commission held its sittings in London, and announced its decision October 20, 1903. This was best summarized by President Roosevelt in his annual message of December 7, 1903:

"By this award, the right of the United States to the control of a continuous strip or border of the mainland shore, skirting all the tidewater inlets and sinuosities of the coast, is confirmed; the

entrance to Portland Canal (concerning which legitimate doubt appeared) is defined as passing by Tongas Inlet, and to the northwestward of Wales and Pearse Islands; a line is drawn from the head of Portland Canal to the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude; and the interior border line of the strip is fixed by lines connecting certain mountain summits lying between Portland Canal and Mount St. Elias, and running along the crest of the divide separating the coast slope from the inland watershed at the only part of the frontier where the drainage ridge approaches the coast within the distance of ten marine leagues, stipulated by the treaty as the extreme width of the strip around the heads of Lynn Canal and its branches.

"While the line so traced follows the provisional demarcation of 1878 at the crossing of the Stikene River, and that of 1899 at the summits of the White and Chilkoot Passes, it runs much farther inland from the Klehini than the temporary line of the later modus vivendi, and leaves the entire mining district of the Porcupine River and Glacier Creek within the jurisdiction of the United States.

The President's Summary

"The result is satisfactory in every way. It is of great material advantage to our people in the Far Northwest. It has removed from the field of discussion and possible danger a question liable to become more acutely accentuated with each passing year. Finally, it has furnished a signal proof of the fairness and good will with which two friendly nations can approach and determine issues involving national sovereignty, and by their nature incapable of submission to a third power for adjudication."

Proposed "Dash to the Pole"

At a banquet given to the Geographical Congress, in New York, on the evening of September 14, 1904, Explorer Peary made an interesting statement of the preparations that were under way for a new "dash for the Pole," which he declared would be the final and supreme effort of his life. This announcement was in response to the presentation to him of the Paris Geographical Society's gold medal. We can not do better than to quote the words of Peary:

"It is a coincidence, and to me a coincidence of deepest interest, that seven years ago, in this city, on the occasion of the presentation to me of the great gold medal of the American Geographical Society, I presented briefly my plans for the Arctic explorations which have occupied me more or less continuously since.

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"Tonight I have the pleasure of saying to you that the contract for my new Arctic ship has been signed and that her keel is being laid now.

"This means that the expedition upon which I have been putting my energies for the past two years is lifted out of the realm of uncertainty, and that if I am alive I shall start north again next summer in another attempt upon the North Pole.

"It does not mean that I have all the money necessary, but it does mean that I have from now until the first of next July in which to secure the additional funds necessary to fit out and equip the ship, and I do not believe that my countrymen will permit the expedition to fail for lack of the additional necessary funds

Peary's Plans

"Though I can not expect you to feel the same interest in the matter as myself, I can not refrain from a word or two in regard to the ship.

"She will, I believe, be the ablest ship that ever pointed her nose inside the Arctic or Antarctic circle. She will possess such shape as will enable her to rise to the pressure of the ice floes and escape destruction. She will possess such strength of construction as will permit her to stand this pressure without injury. She will possess such features of bow as will enable her to smash ice in her path, and will contain such engine power as will enable her to force her way through the ice. In maximum dimensions, viz.: length over all, breadth of beam and draught, this ship will be of the size of the British Antarctic ship *Discovery;* in displacement she will be somewhat less; in power she will compare with our largest ocean going tugs.

"She will have engines capable of developing 1,000 indicated horse power continuously, and 1,500 horse power for limited periods.

"My route north presents features very different from the route of a ship to the Antarctic regions; the voyage is short and the crux of the whole project is the successful negotiation of the comparatively short distance of ice-encumbered channels extending northward from Cape Sabine to the Polar Basin.

"What I require, then, is not a sailing ship with weak auxiliary engines, a ship capable of remaining out for a number of years and covering long distances at slow speed, with moderate consumption of coal. My requirements are a powerful steamer, capable of forcing her way through this comparatively short distance and demanding only a minimum amount of sail power to enable her to creep home in case all her coal is burned—that is what I propose to build.

"My plan of campaign, in a very few words, is to force this ship to the north shores of Grant Land, taking on board at Whale Sound the pick and flower of the Esquimau tribe with whom I have worked and lived so long; to go into winter quarters on that shore, and to start with the earliest returning light on the sledge journey, across the central polar pack, utilizing these Esquimaux, the people whose heritage is life and work in that very region, entirely for the rank and file of my party.

"Never before has it been in the power of a white man to command the utmost efforts and fullest resources of this little tribe of people, as I can do; and that fact will be of inestimable advantage to me.

"But I will not take time with details. Next summer I shall start north again after that on which I have set my heart.

"Shall I win? God knows. I hope and dream and pray that I may. But if I do not some one else will, and here comes in another feature of polar efforts.

"Shall I Win?"

"There is no higher, purer field of rivalry than this Arctic and Antarctic quest.

"If I win, you will have another one of these magnificent tokens for me, and be proud because we are of one blood—the man blood.

"If I fail, you will try it until someone gets there, and then we shall have one of these for the man who wins, whether he bears the colors of France or England or Germany or Norway or Italy, and shall be proud of him, for we shall know he is a man and come of a nation of men, and that the best man has won."

Cuban Reciprocity Treaty

On March 19, 1903, the Senate ratified the treaty for reciprocity with Cuba. This treaty was negotiated in Havana, December 11, 1902, but several amendments were made by the United States Senate. The treaty provides that all merchandise produced by either country which now enters the other free shall continue to be free. All other Cuban products shall be entitled to a reduction of 20 per cent. from the rate imposed by the United States upon such articles. All imports into Cuba from the United States, not entitled to free entry, are granted a reduction of 20 per cent., provided they do not fall within certain specified classes.

The new Department of Commerce and Labor was established by an Act of Congress, approved February 14, 1903. Its head is appointed by the President at a salary of $8,000 a year, and an

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assistant secretary at $5,000 a year, a chief clerk, a disbursing clerk and other clerical assistants are authorized. The duty of this department is to promote and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing and shipping and fishing industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States. With this end in view, there was transferred to the new department from the jurisdiction of the Treasury Department, the Light-House Board and Establishment, the Steamboat Inspection Service, the Bureau of Navigation, the United States Shipping Commissioners, the National Bureau of Standards, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Commissioner-General and Commissioners of Immigration and the Immigration Bureau and service at large and the Bureau of Statistics. The Census Office was transferred to the new department from the Department of the Interior, as were the Department of Labor and the Fish Commission, while the Bureau of Foreign Commerce of the Department of State was made a part of the Bureau of Statistics. A Bureau of Manufactures was also created to promote that industry, and a Bureau of Corporations was established to investigate the organization, conduct and management of the business of any corporation, joint stock company, or corporate combination engaged in commerce among the several States and with foreign nations, except certain common carriers.

GEORGE CORTELYOU, FIRST SECRETARY DEPARTMENT COMMERCE AND LABOR

New Department of Commerce and Labor

MAKING THE FIGURES FOR THE DEWEY ARCH.

The Baltimore Fire

One of the most destructive conflagrations of modern times devastated Baltimore on February 7 and 8, 1904, and swept away the entire business portion of the city. It broke out at 11 A. M., on Sunday, in the dry goods house of John E. Hurst & Co., in the heart of the principal wholesale district. The gasoline tank supplying the building exploded and the structure collapsed. Within half an hour a dozen buildings were burning fiercely and by noon the number was thirty. A high wind made it impossible to check the rapid spread of the flames, though the twenty-five fire crews of the city department wrought with desperate vigor. Calls for help were sent to New York, Philadelphia, Washington and several smaller near-by towns, all of which promptly responded.

The general course of the flames was eastward, and they rapidly transformed every prominent wholesale house in the city into ashes and ruins. Roaring through Baltimore, Lombard and German streets, they destroyed the retail stores, banks and office structures, and then rushed down upon the wholesale and export houses about Exchange Place. All through Sunday afternoon and night the fire raged without check, and on Monday morning reached Jones' Falls, a small stream about one hundred feet wide, which separates the business district from the old portion of the city. The lumber yards and other establishments along that stream lasted only a few minutes.

About this time the wind fortunately veered, and the firemen were able to hold back the fire to the westward of the stream. It sped southward to the Basin, destroying everything in its path. Held in restraint there by Jones' Falls, it gradually died down. The territory thus laid in ruins was bounded on the north by West Lexington Street, on the east by Jones' Falls, on the south by the Basin and on the west by Liberty and South Sharp streets. This district is twelve blocks in length, with a width varying from five to eleven blocks, the whole number razed being seventy-five, covering an area of 140 acres, with nearly 2,500 buildings. Only one fireman was killed and no one was made homeless, this being mainly due to the fact that the fire was confined mostly to the business portion of the city and broke out on Sunday, when few persons were in the buildings. The State militia were called out and the city put practically under martial law, their places being taken later by United States regulars. The estimated loss was $125,000,000.

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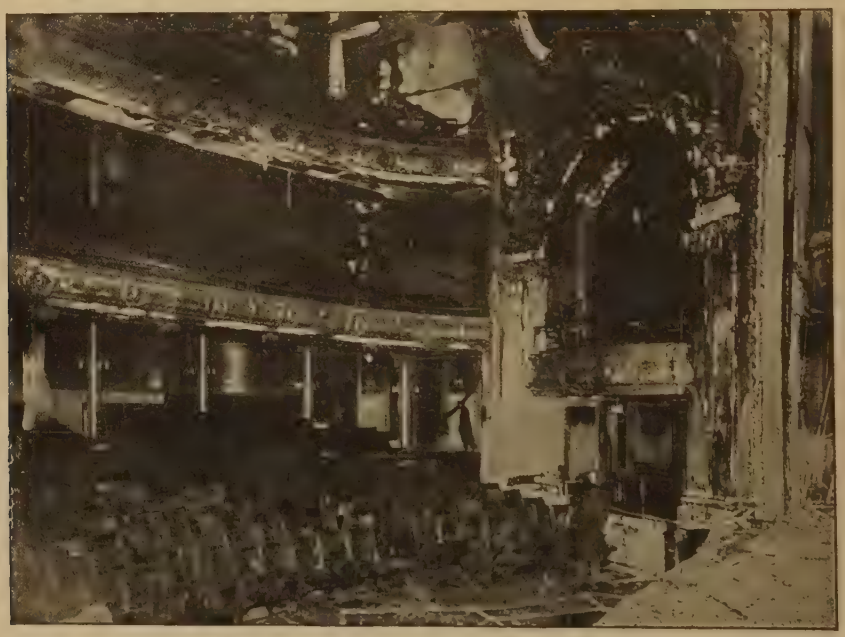
Two appalling disasters, within six months of each other, sent a thrill of horror through the whole country and shocked the civilized world. On the afternoon of December 30, 1903, at a matinee performance of the Iroquois Theatre, Chicago, a structure with all modern appliances and believed to be fire proof, a small blaze started in the stage draperies, supposed to have been caused by a calcium or arc light, and spread with terrifying swiftness. The immense audience was thrown into a wild panic, and fought and trampled on one another in the frenzied struggle to reach the outer

Burning of the Iroquois Theatre



INTERIOR OF IROQUOIS THEATRE AFTER THE FIRE

air. Nearly all the exits were found locked and the asbestos curtain would not work. Penned in, the miserable children, women and men succumbed by the score to the most horrible of deaths. More than six hundred persons were offered up as a sacrifice to the greed and criminal neglect of men.

The Slocum Disaster

On the morning of June 15, 1904, the steamer *General Slocum* left her pier in Brooklyn, with 2,500 excursionists—mostly women and children of St. Mark's parish—for a day's outing on an island in Long Island Sound. When off 138th Street, New York, some fat boiled over in the galley, the cooks fled, and a burst of flame shot

VIEW OF BROOKLYN BRIDGE AND NEW YORK ON THE NIGHT OF THE DEWEY CELEBRATION.

up. Instead of immediately beaching the boat, the captain pressed up stream with all speed, thus fanning the flames, which were driven to the stern and speedily wrapped the steamer from end to end. There was no discipline among the crew, and all engaged in a desperate struggle for life. The life preservers were too few in number, and most of them worthless. Hundreds leaped overboard and were drowned, while others stayed on board and were roasted to death. The *Slocum* was consumed with incredible quickness, having beached herself, and, before the city knew of the awful calamity, over one thousand persons had died the most agonizing of deaths.

Mistaken Clemency

Now it may well be asked what other civilized nation would allow these preventable disasters to go unpunished, and the answer is "None." The known number of victims to the Johnstown disaster of May 31, 1889, is 2,274, their deaths being due to the faulty construction of the enormous dam, of which fact the owners had been repeatedly warned. Not one of these has been punished, even to the extent of a penny's fine.

Not many months after the assassination of President McKinley, a woman, one of the most venomous of anarchists, at a public meeting in New York City advocated the "snuffing out" of a few more of our public men, and the policemen in the audience who were taking notes, did not molest her. No punishment has been visited upon those directly responsible for the Iroquois Theatre horror. In response to the enraged demands of the public, President Roosevelt appointed a commission to investigate the *General Slocum* disaster. They made public their report on October 17, 1904. It contained a sweeping condemnation of the local steamboat inspection service and charged the inspectors with having failed utterly to comply with the statutes, which were declared to be radically defective. The owners of the *Slocum* and her captain were "censured" for their neglect, the incompetency of the crew and the poverty of equipment. The President demanded the removal of the local Supervising Steamboat Inspector, the Inspector of Hulls and the Inspector of Boilers. He called attention to the fact that punitive action by the Government could take only two forms: That of legal proceedings against those either within or without the service, and removal from office of those within the service. Previous to this the Department of Justice had secured indictments against the master and captain of the *Slocum* and against the managing

Report of Commission

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directors of the company to which the *Slocum* belonged, for misconduct, negligence and inattention to duty by the captain and for aiding and abetting therein by the managing directors. Further indictments were obtained against the two assistant inspectors of the Steamboat Inspection Service, who actually inspected the *Slocum*, for fraud, misconduct and inattention to duty, but as stated, the laws governing such matters are of themselves woefully defective. Although the attention of Congress was directed to this lamentable lack, it made no attempt to improve the laws. George B. Cortelyou, as Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor, sent a communication to the body, pointing out many of the defects in the statutes, and asking for revision and amendment, but, as stated, nothing was done, Congress adjourning soon thereafter.

Incredible Infamy

To show the almost incredible indifference in some quarters to commonest humanity, it only remains to record that the manager and three employes of the Nonpareil Cork Works of Camden, N. J., were indicted for inserting in the blocks meant for use in making life preservers, a piece of iron, in order to give the material additional weight. Thus the person who leaped overboard to escape the flames, depending upon the cork strapped to his body to sustain him, would be pulled down and drowned. There is no law to cover such infamy, doubtless, as the President said, because it never entered the head of any man that so gross an infamy could be perpetrated. All the Executive could do regarding the *Slocum* disaster was to order a searching investigation, to weed out the officials not fitted to fulfill their duties, and to order the commission to lay a request before Congress for the necessary changes in the laws.

The report showed that the Supervising Inspector and the two Inspectors of Hulls and Boilers virtually left all the work to the eighteen assistants, and exercised very little real supervision. The reinspection disclosed that 26.35 per cent. of the excursion craft were deficient in hose, and 33 per cent. in life preservers, despite the fact that the hazard on such craft is the most dangerous. "*The Slocum*," it was declared, "was no more dangerous than scores of other steamers still carrying passengers in the port of New York and hundreds of similar vessels elsewhere. The *Slocum* was not abnormal but typical."

Republican National Convention

The Republican National Convention met in Chicago, June 21, 1904, and adjourned two days later. Without a dissenting vote, Theodore Roosevelt was nominated as its candidate for President, and

Charles Warren Fairbanks, United States Senator from Indiana, was made the nominee for Vice-President. No other candidate for the

PRESIDENT THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Presidency had been thought of for months beforehand. Elihu Root, as temporary chairman, delivered an able review, from a Republican standpoint, of the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations.

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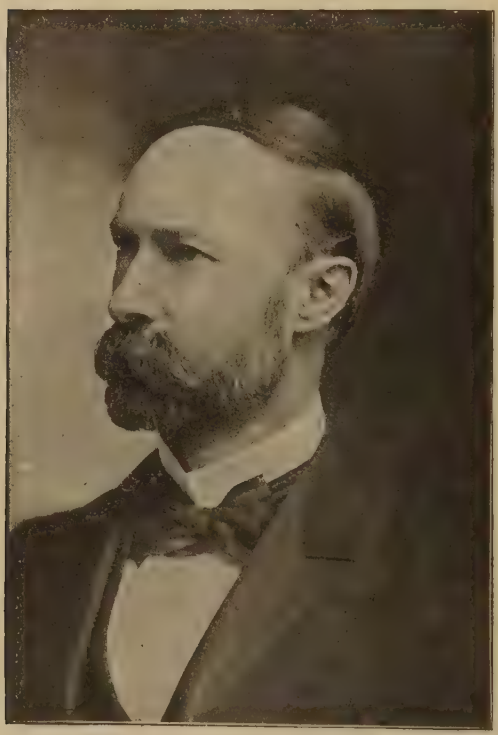
The salient facts in the career of Theodore Roosevelt have already been made known. Charles W. Fairbanks was born in Ohio, May 11, 1852, and was graduated twenty years later from the Ohio Wesleyan University. He was admitted to the bar and removed to Indianapolis in 1874. Although active in political affairs, he held no public office until elected to the United States Senate, January 10, 1897. In 1898, he was made a member of the joint high commission which adjusted the questions brought before that body relating to Canada, particularly those concerning the seal fisheries.



CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS

The Republican platform summarized the history and doctrine of that party. The action of the administration in the settlement of the coal strike, publicity for corporations, the reorganization of the army, the Alaska boundary settlement, the advocacy of the irrigation law, the building of the navy, the post-office prosecutions, the demand for an open door with China and its course respecting the Panama Canal, were dwelt upon and commended. A demand was made for Congressional action that should decide whether by special discriminations the elective franchise in any State had been unconstitutionally limited, and should such discriminations be found, a further demand was made that representation in Congress and in the Electoral College should be proportionately reduced, in accordance with the Constitution of the United States.

Republican Platform

Cortelyou

President Roosevelt wished Senator Marcus A. Hanna, of Ohio, to manage his political campaign, but that gentleman's health was too

feeble to undertake the arduous duties. The task was therefore confided to George B. Cortelyou, who, in 1884, entered the government service as stenographer. In 1890, he succeeded Mr. Porter as secretary of the President, and was retained by President Roosevelt, who advanced him to his cabinet and organized the new Department of Commerce and Labor.

MARCUS A. HANNA

Elihu Root, having insisted upon resigning his portfolio as Secretary of War, was succeeded, February 1, 1904, by Ex-Governor Taft of the Philippines. The valuable services of Mr. Taft in connection with these islands have been referred to in another place. Paul Morton, who was appointed Secretary of the Navy, was a son of the late J. Sterling Morton, Secretary of Agriculture in Cleveland's second cabinet, and for thirty years had been a practical business railway man.

Death of Senator Hanna

Senator Marcus A. Hanna died February 15, 1904, at Washington. He was born in Ohio in 1837, and became prominent in politics as the manager of McKinley's first campaign. The National Committee made him chairman of the Campaign Executive Committee. He was deeply interested in the problem of capital and labor, was charitable, genial, and his wonderful ability for organization made him the most prominent man in American politics at the time of his death.

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The Democratic National Convention which assembled at St. Louis, July 8, 1904, was in striking contrast to that of the Republicans, in Chicago, and ranks as one of the most remarkable in the history of the party. Although the tide had been setting in favor of Judge Alton B. Parker of New York, it was by no means certain that he would receive the nomination. The figure of Grover Cleveland loomed large and impressive. He had twice filled the exalted office, and had proved himself patriotic, able and in accord with the best traditions of the Democracy. He was the foremost statesman of his political organization, and, though handicapped by the third-term prejudice, it was universally believed that his chances of winning were better than those of any man who could be named. The hope of his friends was that in the confusion and strife, a stampede to him would sweep the convention off its feet. Had he announced himself as a candidate, his nomination would have been inevitable, but, though repeatedly appealed to, he steadfastly refused, and the "boom" for him gained little or no headway.

Democratic National Convention

On July 1, the instructed votes for Parker were 280; for W. R. Hearst, 209; for A. P. Gorman, 34; for Cockrell, 36; for Olney, 32; for Wall, 26; for Gray, 6; for Harmon, 4; for Kilbourne, 4; for Folk of Missouri, 4. The delegates numbered 1,000, so that 343 were uninstructed. Two-thirds, or 666⅔ votes were necessary for a nomination.

Bryanism

That which threatened the disruption of the convention and the party was what is termed "Bryanism." Although twice defeated on the platform of opposition to the gold standard, Mr. Bryan's views were as unchangeable as ever; and, although many of his former supporters regarded the question as decisively settled, he had a formidable following, and could make serious trouble. He vehemently opposed the introduction of a gold plank in the platform, after the sub-committee on resolutions had adopted such a plank by a vote of 7 to 3. His insistence prevailed, backed by more than one threat, and it was agreed that the money question should be eliminated from the platform, the full committee deciding upon this course by a vote of 50 to 15. The platform at the evening session, July 8, was read and quickly adopted. Judge Parker was then put in nomination, followed by the other candidates—Hearst, Olney, Cockrell, Wall, Gray and General Miles. The convention remained in session all night, the roll call of States not being concluded until nearly six o'clock the following morning. Judge Parker received

658 votes, which was nine less than were necessary to nominate him. Before the clerk announced the result, Idaho changed her six votes from Hearst to Parker; Nevada did the same with her two votes and Washington with her ten votes. This gave Parker the nomination, after which Missouri swung her thirty-six votes from Cockrell to Parker, and her chairman moved to make the nomination unanimous. As such, the nomination stands, though Bryan and his Nebraska followers remained mute during the vote.

Judge Parker Nominated

The convention, tired and irritable, adjourned to 2 o'clock Saturday afternoon, July 9, when the Vice-Presidential session was to be held. Meanwhile, the editorial articles from the leading metropolitan journals, fiercely attacking the platform, were telegraphed to St. Louis, and the dissatisfaction among the delegates themselves increased. About half of them had straggled into the hall, when the following telegram was handed to the personal representative of Judge Parker:

"July 9, 1904.

"HON. WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN:

"I regard the gold standard as firmly and irrevocably established and shall act accordingly if the act of the convention today shall be ratified by the people.

A Startling Telegram

"As the platform is silent on the subject, my view should be known to the convention, or if it is proved to be unsatisfactory to the majority, I request you to decline the nomination for me, so that another may be nominated before adjournment.

"ALTON B. PARKER."

This telegram caused a marked sensation and was not accepted as genuine until it had been verified. The Vice-Presidential nomination was adjourned until 5:20 in the afternoon, and there were earnest conferences going on among Judge Parker's friends, when the convention reconvened and put in nomination: Representative James R. Williams of Illinois, Ex-Senator Henry G. Davis of West Virginia, Ex-Senator George E. Turner of Washington, Ex-Senator William T. Harris of Kansas, and Senator Edward W. Carmack of Tennessee.

It was after 9 o'clock that Judge Parker's friends in the New York delegation separated, having agreed to ask the convention to send the following telegram to Judge Parker:

"The platform adopted by this convention is silent upon the question of the monetary standard, because it is not regarded by us

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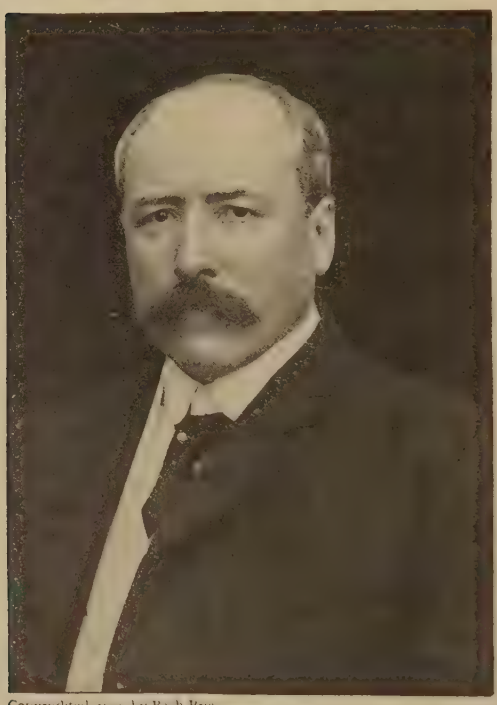
as a possible issue in this campaign, and only campaign issues are mentioned in the platform. Therefore, there is nothing in the views expressed by you in the telegram just received which would preclude a man entertaining them from accepting a nomination on said platform."

Those who had participated in the conference now took their seats in the convention, where Judge Parker's telegram was read, and permission was asked to send the above reply. Just then Mr. Bryan, who had been reported ill, entered and was loudly applauded. He pressed his way forward, and, mounting the platform, vigorously opposed sending the answer that had just been read. A sharp debate followed, in which acrid personalities were exchanged. Bryan's persistency caused him to be hissed, his first experience of that nature in a Democratic convention. He submitted and as he resumed his seat said: "Nebraska will vote for New York State's choice for President." It was now past midnight. The vote in favor of sending the telegram to Judge Parker was 774 to 191 against such action. The roll call of States for a candidate for Vice-President was ordered, and Ex-United States Senator Henry G. Davis received the nomination.



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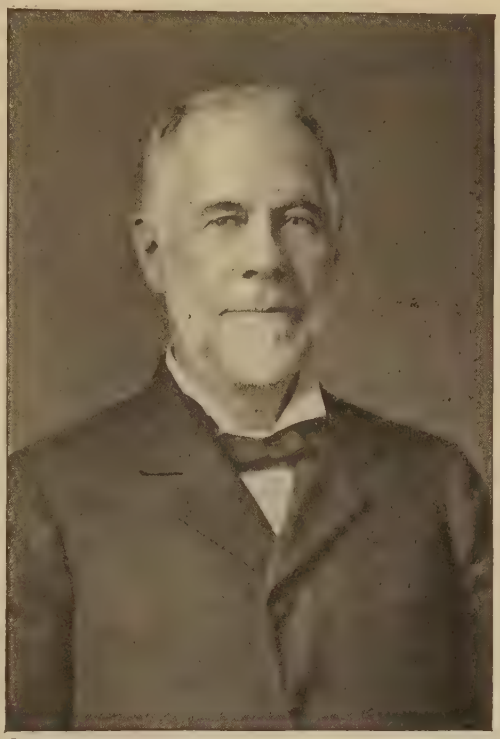
JUDGE ALTON B. PARKER

Alton B. Parker

Alton Brooks Parker was born May 14, 1852, in Cortland, New York, his father being a practical farmer. He attended the common school, the high school, and later the normal school, in order to fit himself to earn enough money to pursue the study of law. He entered the Albany Law School, and on his graduation, opened in Kingston the law office of Parker & Kenyon. He won success and

the respect of all who knew him and that included everybody in the neighborhood. He was an effective stump speaker, and in 1871 was elected surrogate by a large majority, and became the leader of the Ulster County Democracy. He managed the political campaign in which David B. Hill was elected Governor by 15,000 majority. He declined the offer of President Cleveland to make him First Assistant Postmaster-General. Governor Hill appointed him, in 1885, to succeed Judge Westbrook, of the Supreme Court of New York, who had died. At the age of thirty-four, Judge Parker abandoned his political leadership, and gave all his ability to his new duties. He was the youngest man who, up to that time, had been appointed to the Supreme Court bench. No man ever toiled harder or more conscientiously. He declined a nomination for Lieutenant-Governor, and for United States Senator. When seven judges of the Supreme Court were designated as the Second Division of the Court of Appeals, Judge Parker was one of them. Governor Black, in 1894, appointed him Judge of the General Term of the Court of Appeals, holding sessions in New York City.



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HENRY G. DAVIS

In 1896, McKinley carried New York by 150,000 votes. The following year, the Democratic State Committee nominated Judge Parker as Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, and he was successful by a majority of 60,000 over Judge William J. Wallace of Albany, at present Judge of the United States Circuit Court. Strongly attached to farm life, he bought sixty acres at Esopus, ten miles below

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Kingston, and made his home in Rosemount Hall, as he calls his old-fashioned roomy mansion. At home he is an enthusiastic and successful farmer, an athlete, rugged and sturdy specimen of manhood. He is a devout Christian, one of the ablest of jurists, and a man whose private and public life has been stainless.

Ex-Senator Davis

Henry Gassaway Davis, the Democratic nominee for Vice-President, was born in Baltimore, November 16, 1823, so that he was in his eighty-second year when placed in nomination,—an unprecedented occurrence in National politics. Mentally and physically, however, few men of two-thirds his years were his equal. He is essentially a self-made man, having in his early years served as a brakeman on the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. He advanced rapidly, and later was a prominent merchant and a leading collier. He became president of the West Virginia Central and Pittsburg Railway; of the Piedmont and Cumberland Railway, and of the Davis National Bank of Piedmont. He served as a member of the House of Delegates of West Virginia in 1865; was State Senator, 1867-9; and United States Senator, 1871-83, declining a re-election. He has been a delegate to six national Democratic conventions; was a delegate to the Pan-American Congress, and a member of the United States Intercontinental Railway Commission. He acquired immense wealth, and was universally respected and esteemed for his ability, high character and many estimable qualities. What pride and gratitude must fill every American heart when such tribute can be given to the candidates of both the great political parties of the country!

The presidential election of 1904 resulted as follows:

Result of the Election

The total vote cast was 13,523,518, of which Roosevelt received 7,621,985; Parker, 5,098,225; Debs, Socialist, 386,955; Swallow, Prohibition, 254,923; Watson, Populist, 117,257; Corrigan, 29,222. On the popular vote Roosevelt received 2,523,750 more than Parker, and 1,735,403 over all. Of the electoral votes 336 were cast for Roosevelt, and 140 for Parker, none of the other candidates receiving any.

The President's Cabinet

President Roosevelt was inaugurated on the following March 4, and chose for his Cabinet: Secretary of State, John Hay (died July 1, 1905, and succeeded July 6, by Elihu Root); Secretary of the Treasury, Leslie M. Shaw; Secretary of War, William H. Taft; Attorney-General, William H. Moody; Postmaster General, George B. Cortelyou; Secretary of the Navy, Paul Morton (succeeded July

1, 1905 by Charles J. Bonaparte); Secretary of the Interior, Ethan A. Hitchcock; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson; Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Victor B. Metcalf.

When President Roosevelt was inaugurated, the tremendous war between Russia and Japan was at its height. Japan astounded the world by her overwhelming victories on land and water. Despite the humiliating defeats of Russia, she fought on stubbornly, in the face of grave disorders at home. Her vast resources enabled her to continue the struggle indefinitely. The losses of life were so fearful that all nations were gratified when President Roosevelt induced Russia and Japan to consider the question of peace. The task thus undertaken by our chief Executive was of the most delicate and difficult character, and it is extremely doubtful whether any other ruler would have succeeded in the circumstances.

President Roosevelt's Grand Work

On June 12, 1905, both belligerents agreed to appoint plenipotentiaries to discuss the terms of peace. Each country named two of its foremost statesmen, who held their first meeting at Portsmouth, N. H., on August 9. A seemingly hopeless deadlock over terms quickly developed, and the conference would have come to naught but for the tack and persistence of the President, who communicated directly with both Emperors. As a consequence, imperial councils were held in St. Petersburg and Tokio. Peace was signed September 5, at the Navy Yard at Portsmouth, and the Treaty of Peace received the signatures of the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of Russia, on October 14, 1905.

Final Honors to Paul Jones

In our sketch of John Paul Jones (Chapter XXXV.), one of the greatest naval heroes of history, it was shown that he died in Paris, in 1792. A cause of regret for more than a century was that the place of his burial was unknown. In April, 1905, General Horace Porter, American Ambassador to France, succeeded after much difficulty and expense in locating the remains of our first great Admiral, and steps were taken to render fitting tribute to his memory. The body was brought to this country under a naval escort, and on July 24, 1905, it was placed in a temporary vault at Annapolis, Md. On April 24, 1906, it received interment in its permanent resting place in Bancroft Hall at Annapolis. The commemorative exercises at the Naval Academy were highly interesting. The day was the anniversary of the defeat of the British frigate *Drake* by Paul Jones' sloop-of-war *Ranger* Eloquent addresses were made by President Roosevelt, M. Jusserand, the French Ambassador, Governor Warfield, of Maryland, and General Horace Porter.

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Among the unpleasant incidents of President Roosevelt's administration have been the proofs brought to light of the shameless dishonesty of many prominent citizens and powerful corporations. Some of the latter were found guilty of corruption, and two United States Senators were implicated in the disclosures. Secretary Hitchcock of the Interior Department has been so vigorous in his investigations that he established the guilt of another United States Senator—who afterward died—several members of the House, a clergyman, speculators, millionaires, lumbermen, bankers, publishers, former government officials, lawyers and business men on the charge of theft of public lands, with the certainty that other prominent men were equally guilty.

A Shameful Exposure

U. S. S. BENNINGTON

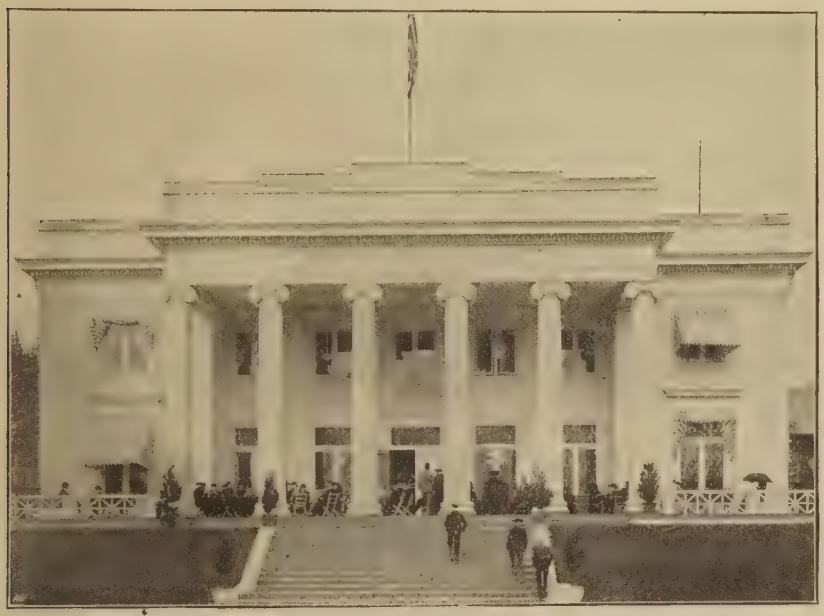
It is a sad fact that no nation in the world compares with our own in its number of fatal accidents. The employees killed on the railways average ten a day, and the injured twelve times as many. This is exclusive of deaths of passengers and other persons, and takes no account of the almost endless casualties from other causes.

Explosion of the Bennington

While the U. S. gunboat *Bennington* was riding at anchor in the harbor of San Diego, Cal., on the morning of July 21, 1905, one of her boilers exploded, killing 28 men and wounding 100 others. Many of the dead and dying sailors were blown into the water, and were picked up by sailing craft and small boats. The *Bennington*

was built in 1890, and attracted attention three years later by a cruise of 24,000 miles in European waters, occupying ten months, during which she called at 31 ports. She was afterward sent to Colon and assisted in preventing revolution.

Ensign C. P. Wade, engineer officer, was acquitted of blame by the court martial, and although Secretary Bonaparte insisted that Commander Lucien Young, in command, should also be tried on charges, he was merely reprimanded for his failure to attach his signature to the "smooth steam log," of the *Bennington*, for the seven months preceding the disaster.



OREGON STATE BUILDING

The Lewis and Clark Exposition

"The Lewis and Clark Centennial and American Pacific Exposition and Oriental Fair" was opened at Portland, Oregon, May 28, 1905, and throughout the following four months attracted thousands of delighted visitors from all parts of the civilized world. As indicated by its somewhat lengthy official title, the Exposition embraced the story of exploration and heroic achievement, the chronicle and summary of the development in the new region that gave the Pacific coast to the United States; and the record of the extension of American trade with the Orient along the pathway blazed by Lewis and Clarke and beyond from the shores of the Pacific.

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The Exposition grounds numbered 400 acres in the foothills of the Cascade range of mountains, of which 220 acres were occupied by a beautiful natural lake. This is the largest body of water ever inclosed within exposition limits. There were ten state buildings. The national government appropriated $475,000 in addition to contributing an exhibit costing more than $300,000. The grounds were well laid out with sunken gardens, a grand stairway to the lake level, and a bridge and island containing the government buildings. The outdoor part of the Fair consisted of forest and horticultural displays and the products of the Northwest. In variety and extent of products, Japan led all foreign exhibitors. The Exposition itself was a striking demonstration of the richness of the country and its nearness to Asia.

One of the most appalling earthquakes in history virtually destroyed the city of San Francisco, on Wednesday, April 18, 1906, at 5:12:36 in the morning, Pacific standard time, although very mild disturbances were noted a half minute earlier. The main shock lasted 40 seconds, then greatly diminished for 10 seconds and became violent for 25 seconds more, thus lasting in all more than a minute. The direction of the motion was from south-southeast to north-northwest.

The California Earthquake

Earthquakes are rated according to their intensity as from 1 to 10. The latter degree means total annihilation, while 1, 2 and 3 are merely *temblors* or tremors. The hundreds of shocks which have visited California during the past few years are described according to the smaller figures. The earthquake at San Francisco being ranked as "number 9," came within one degree of absolute destruction.

In the brief interval named, scores of buildings toppled over and crashed to the earth and several hundred people were crushed to death. Destructive fires immediately appeared in many different places and swept everything before them. The sewer connections and water mains were broken, and thus the heroic efforts of firemen and citizens were useless The flames converged resistlessly upon the parts of the city as yet untouched; the numerous nationalities fought to the death in the frantic efforts to save themselves and friends; the dead and dying were everywhere; the great steel structures were skinned by the intolerable heat and remained standing like grim skeletons, the whole making a scene of horror which is beyond the reach of imagination.

The force of the shock was the greatest in that part of the city built on made or alluvial ground. Not only were water mains and sewers severed, but car tracks were twisted and at Eighteenth and Valencia streets, a crevice six feet wide opened in the earth. In some places the ground settled for several feet. A second strong shock was felt about three hours after the first, but the terror it would have caused was overwhelmed by the conflagration that was raging. The City Hall, a mile and a half from the east water front, was ruined and for hours it looked as if every human being was doomed.

Damage Inflicted

The principal damage outside of San Francisco was in a strip of country reaching from the town of Ukiah on the Russian River, 125 miles north to the town of Salinas, near Monterey Bay, 80 miles south of the shattered metropolis. Oakland, on the east side of the bay, opposite San Francisco, was badly shaken, but being a city of frame dwellings was not greatly damaged. Some important buildings in Berkeley were destroyed, while those connected with the University of California, standing on high ground, escaped. The Santa Clara Valley suffered severely, the main buildings at Stanford University being much injured, as were those at San Jose. So narrow was the range of destruction that the Lick Observatory, on Mount Hamilton, 15 miles east of San Jose, was not harmed. The major effects were confined to a zone 200 miles in length and some 30 miles in width. In a brief while the merciless flames which followed on the heels of the earthquake wiped three-fourths of San Francisco from the face of the earth. More than 300,000 persons were made homeless and helpless. The loss of life will never be fully known, but it must have exceeded a thousand persons. The value of the buildings burned in the great fire of London, most of them being small and of wood, was about $50,000,000; in the burning of Moscow, $150,000,000; destroyed by the Commune in Paris, in May, 1871, $160,000,000; and in the Chicago fire, in the same year, $ 95,000,000. The total value of the taxable property in San Francisco, real and personal, was a little more than $524,000,000, or not quite three-fourths of its value. Assuming that the insurance companies will pay $150,000,000, the net loss is about $200,000,000.

Damage Outside of San Francisco

Into this pandemonium of horror and death, stepped the brave little company of United States soldiers from the Presidio, the military station on the bay, and under the direction of General Fuston

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and with the vigorous co-operation of the city officials, order was preserved, looting was suppressed and the citizens protected and fed in their improvised tents and makeshift quarters. The military supplies sufficed for a brief time, but hardly had the news of the awful calamity been flashed throughout the country, when relief trains, which were given the right of way over all others, were rushing across the continent at express speed. The whole nation

Practical Sympathy

A PORTION OF CITY HALL, SAN FRANCISCO, BEFORE THE EARTHQUAKE

responded; Congress appropriated $3,500,000; New York City alone gave $4,000,000; it seemed as if every town, village and hamlet were striving to hasten all possible aid to the sufferers. In a short time the relief fund amounted to more than $20,000,000 and the stricken multitudes on the Pacific coast were safe against starvation. Offers of aid were made by sympathizing nations, even from far

FOUR-STORY BUILDING AFTER THE EARTHQUAKE. FORTY LIVES WERE LOST IN THIS BUILDING

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away New Zealand, but President Roosevelt gratefully declined all such proffers, feeling that the calamity was so essentially American that the soothing balm should be applied by our own countrymen.

Aside from the noble brotherhood displayed throughout the country, the splendid nerve of the people of San Francisco was beyond praise. The flames had not ceased raging when plans were under discussion for the rebuilding of the city on safer, more enduring foundations and on a more harmonious and beautiful plan than ever before. The old picturesque San Francisco has vanished, but a more imposing and a grander city is rising from its ashes.

The New San Francisco

Scientific men are not fully agreed as to the cause of earthquakes. The most generally accepted theory is that they are due to "faults" in the earth's crust. A "fault" is a fracture in the geological strata, which permits the sliding of the inconceivable masses over one another. The San Bruno fault can be traced for 600 miles. It passes through Batinsa Bay to the north of San Franciso under the coast waters to Mussel Rock and thence southeasterly through Salinas and avoids Santa Barbara. The faults in the earth's crust are caused by the lateral or vertical stresses from cooling in the first stages of formation, or to pressure during the more recent years in earth history.

Causes of Earthquakes

APPENDIX

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

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(122 Pages)

The Declaration of Independence

In Congress, July 4, 1776

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

WHEN in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are

sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security.—Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harrass our People, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our Consent:

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Government:

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in

the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

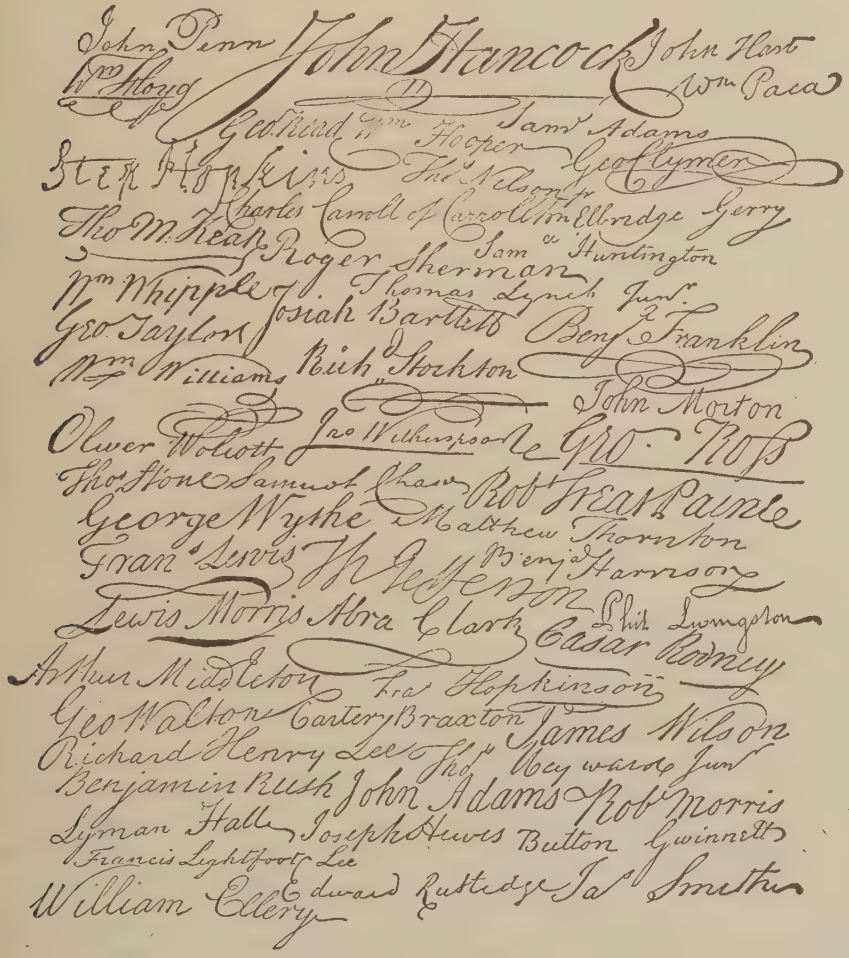
He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free People.

Nor have We been wanting in attention to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of

this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the Protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.



FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

New Hampshire—JOSIAH BARTLETT, WM. WHIPPLE, MATTHEW THORNTON.

Massachusetts Bay—JOHN HANCOCK, SAML. ADAMS, JOHN ADAMS, ROBT. TREAT PAINE, ELBRIDGE GERRY.

Rhode Island—STEP. HOPKINS, WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut—ROGER SHERMAN, SAM'EL HUNTINGTON, WM. WILLIAMS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York—WM. FLOYD, PHIL. LIVINGSTON, FRANS. LEWIS, LEWIS MORRIS.

New Jersey—RICHD. STOCKTON, JNO. WITHERSPOON, FRAS. HOPKINSON, JOHN HART, ABRA. CLARK.

Pennsylvania—ROBT. MORRIS, BENJAMIN RUSH, BENJA. FRANKLIN, JOHN MORTON, GEO. CLYMER, JAS. SMITH, GEO. TAYLOR, JAMES WILSON, GEO. ROSS.

Delaware—CÆSAR RODNEY, GEO. READ, THO. M'KEAN.

Maryland—SAMUEL CHASE, WM. PACA, THOS. STONE, CHARLES CARROLL of Carrollton.

Virginia—GEORGE WYTHE, RICHARD HENRY LEE, TH. JEFFERSON, BENJA. HARRISON, THOS. NELSON, jr., FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE, CARTER BRAXTON.

North Carolina—WM. HOOPER, JOSEPH HEWES, JOHN PENN.

South Carolina—EDWARD RUTLEDGE, THOS. HEYWARD, Junr., THOMAS LYNCH, Junr., ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

Georgia—BUTTON GWINNETT, LYMAN HALL, GEO. WALTON.

The Constitution of the United States

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.*

ARTICLE I

SECTION I.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

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* The Federal Convention which framed the Constitution met at Philadelphia in May, 1787, and completed its work September 17th. The number of delegates chosen to the convention was sixty-five; ten did not attend; sixteen declined signing the Constitution, or left the convention before it was ready to be signed; thirty-nine signed.

The states ratified the Constitution in the following order:

Delaware ..... December 7, 1787	Maryland ..... April 28, 1788
Pennsylvania ..... December 12, 1787	South Carolina ..... May 23, 1788
New Jersey ..... December 18, 1787	New Hampshire ..... July 21, 1788
Georgia ..... January 2, 1788	Virginia ..... June 25, 1788
Connecticut ..... January 9, 1788	New York ..... July 26, 1788
Massachusetts ..... February 6, 1788	North Carolina ..... November 21, 1789

Rhode Island ..... May 29, 1790.

The first ten amendments were proposed in 1789, and declared adopted in 1791. The eleventh amendment was proposed in 1794, and declared adopted in 1798. The twelfth amendment was proposed in 1803, and declared adopted in 1804. The thirteenth amendment was proposed and adopted in 1865. The fourteenth amendment was proposed in 1866, and adopted in 1868. The fifteenth amendment was proposed in 1869, and adopted in 1870.

SECTION II.—The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of *New Hampshire* shall be entitled to choose three, *Massachusetts* eight, *Rhode Island and Providence Plantation* one, *Connecticut* five, *New York* six, *New Jersey* four, *Pennsylvania* eight, *Delaware* one, *Maryland* six, *Virginia* ten, *North Carolina* five, *South Carolina* five, and *Georgia* three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.—The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year;

and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore* in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.—The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.—Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish

its members for disorderly behavior, and with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.—The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.—All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approves he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of

each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.—The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by session of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.—The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account

of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION X.—No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

SECTION I.—The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives, to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

[The electors shall meet in their respective States and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list

of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of voters of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]*

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.

*This clause of the Constitution has been amended. See twelfth article of the amendments.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he may have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II.—The President shall be Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.—He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public

ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.—The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

SECTION I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.—The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases beforementioned the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.—Treason against the United States shall consist only

in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.—The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III.—New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which in either case shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress, provided that no amendments which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives beforementioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

George Washington, President, and Deputy from VIRGINIA.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—John Langdon, Nicholas Gilman.

MASSACHUSETTS—Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King.

CONNECTICUT—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman.

NEW YORK—Alexander Hamilton.

NEW JERSEY—William Livingston, David Brearly, William Patterson, Jonathan Dayton.

PENNSYLVANIA—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitzsimons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris.

DELAWARE—George Read, Gunning Bedford, Jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom.

MARYLAND—James McHenry, Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA—John Blair, James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA—William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson.

SOUTH CAROLINA—John Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Charles Pinckney, Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA—William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

Attest: William Jackson, *Secretary*.

AMENDMENTS

ARTICLE I

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the person or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or

property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.

ARTICLE XI

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted

against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII

The electors shall meet in their respective States and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each; which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the Presidents of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the

office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII

SECTION I.—Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION II.—Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV

SECTION I.—All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION II.—Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION III.—No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support

the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SECTION IV.—The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION V.—The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV

SECTION I.—The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION II.—The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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1840 Sub-Treasury system bill, 763—Presidential campaign, 764—"Whigs," "Abolition party," "Tories," 764—"Hard cider" campaign, 765—Anti-rent war, 774—Venezuela, troubles of, 1639.

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1841 Sub-Treasury system repealed, 763—Reduction of duties, 746—Inauguration of President Harrison, 767—Death of President Harrison, 767——Vice-President Tyler becomes President, 768—Sir Robert Schomburgk in Venezuela, 1617.

1842 End of Seminole War, 756—Compromise measure of Henry Clay, 769—The Webster-Ashburton treaty, 769—The Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island, 769—The Somers mutiny, 771—Completion of Bunker Hill monument, 771—Treaty between United States and Great Britain, 772—Captain Frémont's first expedition, 825—Strike at Pittsburg, 1571—Strikes in Maine, 1571—Augustus Porter formulates the scheme of hydraulic canals, 1613.

1843 Rhode Island adopts new Constitution, 771—Dedication of Bunker Hill monument; Webster's oration at, 771—Trouble over Texas, 777—The United States Military Academy adopts present system of cadet appointment, 780—Captain Frémont in California, 812—Captain Frémont's second expedition, 826—Strike at Pittsburg, 1571.

1844 Accident to the steamship Princeton, 771—Trouble with the Mormons, 772—The copper mines of Lake Superior, 773—Anti-rent war, 774—Completion of the magnetic telegraph, 775—Presidential election, 775—Strikes in Philadelphia, 1571—Venezuelan boundary question, 1617.

1845 Brigham Young, 772—Florida admitted to the Union, 778—Texas admitted to the Union, 777—The United States Naval Academy opened, 780—Death of Andrew Jackson, 782—Trouble over Oregon, 783—War with Mexico, 784—Treachery of General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, 785—General Taylor near the Rio Grande, 787—Sir John Franklin's Arctic expedition, 816—Captain Frémont's third expedition, 826—Strike at Pittsburg, 1571.

1846 Founding of Hakluyt Society, 103—Sub-Treasury system re-enacted, 763-783—Anti-rent war, 774—Iowa admitted to the Union, 780—Elias Howe patents the sewing machine, 780—Trouble over Oregon, 783—End of "American System," 784—Battle of Palo Alto, 788—Battle of Resaca de la Palma, 789, 795—Mexican campaign, 791—The Wilmot proviso, 803—San Juan boundary dispute, 846, 1383—Frémont visits fort of Captain Sutter, 1554.

1847 R. M. Hoe patents cylinder printing-press, 780—Battle of Buena Vista, 793—Conquest of New Mexico and California, 794—Colonel Doniphan's campaign, 796—Final campaign against Mexico, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800—San Francisco named, 812.

1848 Republic of Liberia independent, 718—Mormons found Salt Lake City, 772—Death of John Q. Adams, 782, 1649—Oregon a Territory, 784, 845—Peace between the United States and Mexico, 800—Gold discovered in California, 802, 812—Wisconsin admitted to

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the Union, 803—Presidential election, 804—Captain Frémont's fourth expedition, 826—The Mexican cession, 1300, 1412—Strike at Fall River, 1571.

1849 Inauguration of Taylor and Fillmore, 805—Minnesota a Territory, 844—Strike at Pittsburg, 1571. Treaty between United States and Hawaii, 1557.

1850 Trouble over California, 807—Slavery question, 807—The "Omnibus Bill," 808—Death of President Taylor, 809—The Compromise act of, 809—California admitted to the Union, 810—Captain Frémont in California, 812—Death of John C. Calhoun, 812—Expedition of Henry Grinnell, 816—Strike in Massachusetts, 1572.

1851 Cuban expedition of General Lopez, 814—Expedition of Henry Grinnell, 816—Treaty with the Indians, 844.

1852 Mint established at San Francisco, 603—Death of Daniel Webster, 812—Death of Henry Clay, 812—Visit of Louis Kossuth, 819, 822—Presidential election, 820—"Uncle Tom's Cabin" published, 1353—Fall of the Whig party, 1536.

1853 Oregon divided, 784—Arctic expedition of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane, 816—Perry's Japan expedition, 817—Surveys made for Overland Railway, 818—The Cuban question agitated, 819—President Pierce inaugurated, 821—The Koszta incident, 822—Frémont's last expedition, 830—Gen. William Walker's filibustering expedition, 831—Repeal of the Missouri Compromise discussed, 833—The "Knownothing" party, 838—Oregon Territory divided, 845—Gadsden purchase, 1804.

1854 Settlement of the fishery dispute between the United States and Great Britain, 816—Steamer *Black Warrior* seized by Spanish, 830—The Ostend circular, 830—Boundary between Mexico and the United States rectified, 832—A reciprocity treaty with England, 833—Civil war in Kansas, 834—Repeal of the Missouri Compromise, 833, 838—Trouble with the Nez Percés, 1423—The Cooper Union erected, 1742.

1855 Return of Kane's Arctic expedition, 817—Walker's second filibustering expedition, 831—Indian outrages, 832—Civil war in Kansas, 836.

1856 End of Indian outrages, 832—Lawrence, Kans., burned, 836—Presidential election, 838.

1857 Surrender of Walker, 832—President Buchanan's Cabinet, 840—Mormon troubles, 842—Financial panic, 843—Dred Scott decision, 845.

1858 Minnesota admitted to the Union, 844—First Atlantic cable laid, 845—Mineral and oil discoveries, 847—Gold discovered at Pike's Peak, 847, 1412.

1859 Oregon admitted to the Union, 844—John Brown seizes Harper's Ferry, 848—He is captured and hung, 849—Oil discovered near Titusville, Pa., 848—The Credit Mobilier of America, 1390.

1860 Execution of General Walker, 832—Secession troubles in Buchanan's Cab-

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inet, 841—Resignation of Lewis Cass, 841—End of Mormon troubles, 842—Democratic convention in Charleston, S. C., 849—Presidential campaign, 849, 1635—Secession of South Carolina, 851.

1861 Secession convention held, 855—The Southern Confederacy organized, 856—Kansas admitted to the Union, 837—Jefferson Davis and his Cabinet, 856, 857—Inauguration of Abraham Lincoln, 864—His Cabinet, 865—Bombardment and surrender of Fort Sumter, 866—Rioting in Baltimore, 870—Capture of Harper's Ferry, 870—Burning of the Norfolk Navy-Yard, 871—Big and Little Bethel, 874—The writ of *habeas corpus* suspended, 878—War measures in the South, 879—English enmity to the Union, 879—The French Emperor Louis Napoleon's enmity, 880—"On to Richmond," 880—Union panic at Bull Run, 886, 893—Defeat of General Sigel, 892—Death of General Lyon, 894—Colonel Mulligan defeated at Lexington, Ky., 894—Missouri desolated, 895—General Grant ends Kentucky's neutrality, 896—General Grant at Belmont, 896—Operations in Florida, 900—The Hatteras expedition, 901—Expedition against Beaufort and Port Royal, S. C., 902—The Trent affair, 904—Gen. Robert E. Lee resigns from United States army, 1358—U. S. Grant brigade commander at Ironton, Mo., 1464—Lincoln's call for militia, 869—Niagara Falls harnessed and power companies incorporated, 1613—Position of the United States among naval powers, 1668.

1862 Mint established in Denver, 603—Capture of Fort Henry, 916, 918—Capture of Fort Donelson, 918, 921—Battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing, 924—Battle of Pea Ridge, 928—Hostilities in New Mexico, 930—Confederates march on Louisville, Ky., 933—Battle at Corinth, 934—The great railroad chase, 936–942—The Burnside expedition, 944—New-Berne, N. C., captured, 945—The *Merrimac* (*Virginia*) constructed, 946—Attacks the Union fleet in Hampton Roads, 949–953—Building of the *Monitor*, 955—The *Monitor* defeats the *Merrimac*, 959, 960, 1668—End of the *Monitor*, 961, 962—Defence of New Orleans, 964, 973—Farragut's fleet attacks New Orleans, 965—New Orleans captured, 973—Siege of Yorktown, Va., 980—Repulse of Union gunboats on James River, Va., 992—Stonewall Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley, 996—Stuart's raid, 1008—McClellan's expedition against Richmond, 1014—General Lee retreats, 1018—Exploits of Stonewall Jackson, 1022—The second battle of Bull Run, 1025—The first Confederate invasion, 1027—McClellan's advance, 1032—Capture of Harper's Ferry, 1033—Battle at Antietam, or Sharpsburg, 1035—Battle of Fredericksburg, 1055—"Greenbacks" issued, 1059—Escape of Union prisoners from Libby prison, 1303—First overland railway, 1390—John Tyler, death of, 1650.

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1863 Emancipation Proclamation issued, 1059—National banking system established, 1060—Battle of Murfreesboro, 1060—Capture of Arkansas Post, 1064—Siege of Vicksburg, 1064—Expedition against Grand Gulf, 1067—Surrender of Pemberton at Vicksburg, 1071—Opening of the Mississippi, 1071—Capture of Cumberland Gap, 1074—Battle of Chickamauga, 1076-1078—Grant in chief command, 1079—Siege of Knoxville, Tenn., 1079–1082—Battle of Lookout Mountain, 1080—Confederate privateers fitted out, 1084—Draft riots in New York, 1085—Naval attack on Charleston, 1086–1088—Burnside superseded by Hooker, 1093—Retreat of the Union army at Chancellorsville, 1102—Cavalry fight at Brandy Station, 1108—Panic in Harrisburg, 1120—General Longstreet at Winchester, 1121—Union and Confederate armies cross the Potomac, 1126—Stuart's second raid, 1127—Gen. George Gordon Meade succeeds General Hooker in command of the Army of the Potomac, 1131, 1146, 1150—Evacuation of Harper's Ferry, 1134—Battle of Gettysburg, 1137–1192—Battle of Little Round Top, 1160—Close of second Confederate invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania, 1198—General Lee driven across the Rapidan, 1200—General Meade's withdrawal, 1200.

1864 Sherman's work of destruction, 1203—Banks's Red-River expedition, 1204—Banks's army routed, 1205—Confederates driven from Arkansas, 1213—Col. B. H. Grierson's raid around Vicksburg, 1213—Grant appointed lieutenant-general, 1214—Advance of the army of the Potomac, 1215—General Longstreet wounded, 1216—Death of General Sedgwick, 1218—Death of "Jeb" Stuart, 1219—Operations in the Shenandoah Valley, 1222—Petersburg in danger, 1223—Generals Early and Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley, 1228—Alarm in Washington, 1229—"Sheridan's Ride," 1232—Battle of Mobile Bay, 1239—Fort Morgan surrenders, 1248—Building of the *Albemarle*, 1248—The *Albemarle* destroyed by Lieutenant Cushing of the navy, 1250—Capture of Fort Fisher, 1254—The *Florida* captured, 1256—The *Shenandoah*, 1257—The *Alabama* sunk by the *Kearsarge*, 1270—Battle of Kenesaw Mountain, 1278—Hood succeeds Johnston, 1280—Death of General McPherson, 1282—Evacuation of Atlanta, Ga., 1285—Hood's army destroyed by General Thomas, 1288—Hood succeeded by Gen. Dick Taylor, 1289—Sherman's "March to the Sea," 1290—Savannah surrenders to Sherman, 1293—Louis Napoleon's duplicity, 1294—Maximilian proclaimed Emperor of Mexico, 1294—Presidential election, 1295—Sinking of the *Island Queen*, 1299—Gold reaches the highest premium, 1299—Nevada admitted to the Union, 1299—Establishment and work of the Sanitary Commission, 1301.

1865 Laying of the American cable, 846, 1359—Hanging of John Y. Beall and

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Robert C. Kennedy, 1299—The Hampton Roads meeting, 1311—Adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment, 1315, 1368—Trouble in Mexico, 1316—Lee becomes commander-in-chief of Confederate forces, 1319—Sherman winters in Savannah, 1319—Columbia, S. C., surrenders to Sherman, 1319—Fall of Charleston, S. C., 1320—General Hardee defeated at Fayetteville, 1320—General Gordon's attack on Fort Stedman, 1321—Petersburg, Va., attacked, 1323—Evacuation and destruction of Richmond, 1325—Death of Gen. A. P. Hill, 1329—Evacuation of Petersburg by Lee, 1330—Surrender of Lee at Appomattox, 1332–1335—Assassination of Abraham Lincoln, 1336—Attack on Secretary Seward, 1339—Death of Wilkes Booth, 1341—The Lincoln obsequies, 1343—Selma, Ala., falls into Union hands, 1345—General Johnston capitulates, 1345—Surrender of Gen. Dick Taylor and Admiral Farrand, 1345—General Brent surrenders to General Canby, 1345—Close of the Rebellion, 1347–1353—Capture of Jefferson Davis, 1350—Evacuation of Richmond by the Union forces, 1350—Military review of army in Washington, 1355—England and France close ports to Confederate flag, 1355—French evacuation of Mexico, 1358—Frauds in the Credit Mobilier, 1390—Sherman takes leave of his army, 1528—General Johnston surrenders, 1563.

1866 Termination of reciprocity treaty with England, 833—Proclamation that Civil War is over, 1346—The Fenians invade Canada, 1360 Passage of the Civil Rights Bill, 1369—The Ku-Klux Klan formed, 1384—Establishment of the first post of the Grand Army of the Republic, 1522—Tennessee restored to the Union, 1696.

1867 Jefferson Davis released from prison, 1353—Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico, surrenders, and is shot by the Mexicans, 1359—Purchase of Alaska, 1361, 1449, 1691—Organized as a territory, 1362—Nebraska admitted to the Union, 1362—Quarrel between Andrew Johnson and Secretary Stanton, 1370—Secretary Stanton resigns, 1372.

1868 Impeachment and acquittal of Andrew Johnson, 1371—Amnesty proclaimed, 1372—Adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, 1372—Several States admitted to representation in Congress, 1384—Presidential campaign, 1635—Labor strikes in Fall River, 1572.

1869 General Grant elected President, 1373—His Cabinet, 1375—Completion of the Overland Railway, 1375—"Black Friday," 1376—The "Tweed Ring," 1379, 1381—Georgia representatives vacate seats in Congress, 1384—Purchase of San Domingo defeated in Congress, 1385—Influx of Chinese, 1435—Sheridan assumes command of the division of Missouri, 1487.

1870 National census taken, 1386—Deaths of Gens. Robert E. Lee, George

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H. Thomas, Edwin M. Stanton, and Admiral Farragut, 1386, 1530—Indian republican government formed, 1405—The Brooklyn bridge completed, 1449—Tennessee adopts present constitution, 1696.

1871 The great Chicago fire, 1377—The High Commissioners and Tribunal Arbitration appointed, 1383—Passage of the Force Bill, 1384—All the States admitted to representation in Congress, 1384—Organization of provisional government among the Indians, 1405.

1872 San Juan dispute settled, 847—Northwest boundary question settled, 1383—Act of amnesty passed, 1385—Deaths of William H. Seward, Professor Morse, and Gen. George G. Meade, 1386—Presidential campaign, 1388, 1635—Civil war in Arkansas, 1397—Treaty of Washington made, 1435—Apache outrages, 1474.

1873 Denver and Charlotte mints changed to assay offices, 603—Financial panic, 1390—Attack by Modoc Indians under flag of truce upon the peace commissioners, 1406.

1874 The "carpet-bag" blight, 1393—Presidential election, 1394—Civil war in Arkansas, 1397—Gold discovered in the Black Hills, 1404—Bartholdi statue dedicated, 1461—Strikes in Pittsburg, 1571.

1875 Rioting in New Orleans, 1394—Downfall of "carpet-baggism" in Louisiana, 1396—End of civil war in Arkansas, 1399—Reciprocity treaty with Hawaii, 1557.

1876 Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia, 1401, 1450—Trouble with the Sioux Indians, 1406, 1411—The Custer massacre, 1408, 1504—Colorado admitted to the Union, 1412—The Presidential election, 1469, 1635.

1877 Schuylerville centennial celebration, 486—Silver discovered at Leadville, 1412—Decision of Electoral Commission regarding Presidential election, 1414—Hayes' Cabinet, 1417—First use of telephone, 1418—Railway strikes, 1418, 1568, 1572—Rioting in Pittsburg and Chicago, 1420, 1422—Trouble with the Nez Percés, 1423—Decision of the Halifax commission, 1435.

1878 The remonetization of silver, 1427—Yellow fever in the South, 1428—The Eads jetties built, 1429—The "Molly Maguires" outrages, 1436, 1438—General Grant makes a tour around the world, 1440—General Miles conquers the Bannock Indians, 1565.

1879 End of financial panic of 1873, 1390—Resumption of specie payment, 1428.

1880 National census, 1418—Treaty made with China, 1435—The Greely expedition, 1452—Presidential campaign, 1469, 1635—Labor strikes, 1572, 1574.

1881 Inauguration of President James A. Garfield, 1442—Garfield's Cabinet, 1444—Assassination of Garfield by Guiteau, 1444—Chester A. Arthur sworn in as President, 1445—Arthur's Cabinet, 1446—

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"Star Route frauds," 1447—Yorktown centennial, 1450—Venezuelan boundary question, 1618.

1882 Charles Guiteau executed, 1445—Senator Edmund's anti-polygamy bill passed, 1448—Relief for the Greely expedition, 1452, 1457—Lieutenant Rockwood and Sargeant Brainard reach the most northern point attained by an American, 1679.

1883 Brooklyn Bridge opened, 1449—Exploration of Alaska, 1449—Polar expedition under Lieut. Fred. Schwatka, U. S. A., 1449—Greely expedition homeward bound, 1456—Sheridan assumes command of the armies of the United States, 1487—Venezuela, troubles of, 1617.

1884 Presidential campaign of, 1459, 1635—Official presentation of the Bartholdi statue, 1461—Sherman retires from command of the army, 1528.

1885 Cleveland's inauguration, 1460—His Cabinet, 1461—Death of General Grant, 1464—Deaths of ex-Vice-President Thomas A. Hendricks and Gen. George B. McClellan, 1468—Surrender of the Apaches, 1479—Labor strikes, 1572.

1886 Death of General Hancock, 1469—The Charleston earthquake, 1483—Anarchistic riot in Chicago, 1484—General Miles captures Geronimo, 1565—Labor strikes, 1571-1590—Niagara Falls Power Company incorporated, 1613.

1887 Trouble in Hawaii, 1558—The Reading Railway strike, 1574—Trouble between England and Venezuela, 1617.

1888 Death of General Sheridan, 1485—Presidential election, 1487, 1635—Labor strikes, 1575.

1889 Naval disaster at Samoa, 1489—The Johnstown flood, 1490—Strikes in New York and New Jersey, 1576—Cataract Construction Company incorporated, 1613—Secretary of Agriculture added to Cabinet, 600.

1890 The "Mafia" organization, 1497—War with the Sioux, 1503—The "Messiah craze," 1504—Indian ghost dances, 1505—Death of Sitting Bull, 1509—Sioux at Standing Rock, 1517—Case of Barrundia, 1525—Chicago chosen for the World's Fair, 1540—Labor troubles, 1579—Venezuelan boundary question, 1618-1621—Work begun for utilizing Niagara Falls, 1613—The McKinley tariff bill passed, 1643.

1891 Threatened war with Chili, 1499—Trouble at Valparaiso, 1500—Death of General Sherman, 1526—Death of Admiral Porter, 1529—Labor strikes, 1579, 1586—Treaty rights of Hawaii, 1557—Death of King Kalakaua of Hawaii, 1558—Lieutenant Peary's Arctic expedition sails, 1680.

1892 Date of the close of the Civil War fixed, 1346—Chilian dispute settled, 1502—The Mijares incident in Venezuela, 1523—Presiden-

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tial campaign, 1535, 1635—Labor strikes at Homestead, Pa., 1580-1584—Col. Kellar Anderson's troops fight with miners in Tennessee, 1591—Strikes in New York, 1592—Grounds at World's Fair opened, 1542—Four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, 1540—Labor unions in New Orleans, 1594.

1893 Statue erected to Nathan Hale, 477—Democratic success, and its causes, 1536—Columbian Exposition, 1540, 1554—Venezuelan boundary question, 1618-1624—Labor strikes, 1576, 1594, 1604—Statistics of the strikes, 1604—Trouble in Hawaii, 1558.

1894 Dobbs Ferry monument, 570—Sources of the Mississippi River discovered, 1429—March of "The Commonweal Army," 1606—Chicago riots, 1565—California midwinter fair, 1554—Provisional government established in Hawaii, 1559—Labor strikes, 1568—Utah admitted to the Union, 1612—The *Kearsarge* lost on Roncador reef, 1672.

1895 The Atlanta Exposition opened, 1554—Provisional government in Hawaii, 1559—The Brooklyn trolley strike, 1607-1611—Venezuelan boundary question, 1616, 1618—Water power of Niagara Falls put to use, 1614.

1896 Equestrian statue of General Grant dedicated in Brooklyn, 1467—Proposed arbitration concerning Venezuelan boundary question, 1622—Presidential election, 1632, 1633—Utah admitted to the Union, 1613—Sealing commission treaty between United States and Great Britain, 1695—Peary's sixth expedition, 1685-1689.

1897 Great coal strike in West Virginia, 1611—The Anglo-Venezuelan arbitration treaty, 1629—The Anglo-American general arbitration treaty, 1660—Senate rejects arbitration treaty, 1666—The "Greater New York" bill passed, 1666—Tennessee celebrates its centennial, 1698, 1699—Nashville, Tenn., centennial exposition opened, 1698—Washington monument at Philadelphia completed and dedicated, 1748—The *Mayflower* log presented to Ambassador Bayard, 1755—Dedication of Grant's tomb, 1767—Extra session of Congress called, 1789—The tariff bill passed, 1790—Work of the Dawes commission, 1794—The Klondike gold fields, Alaska, 1794, 1798—The gold-bearing belt, 1798—Urban and rural wealth and population in the United States, 1802-1808—Growth of territory and population, 1804—Number and proposed boundaries of States, 1815—Dangers that threaten America, 1822.

1898 Greater New York begins its official existence, 1666—The publication of the ill-advised letter of Señor Dupuy de Lome, Spanish minister to the United States, causes his resignation and the appointment of Señor Luis Polo y Bernabe as his successor, 1858—The United States battleship *Maine* is blown up in the harbor of Havana, 1858—A naval court of inquiry is appointed to inves-

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tigate the cause of the explosion, 1859—The Senate passes the bill appropriating $50,000,000 for national defence, 1861—President McKinley sends to Congress the report of the *Maine* court of inquiry, accompanied by a message, 1862—Joint resolution demanding the withdrawal of Spain from Cuba is adopted by Congress and approved by the President, 1862—President McKinley issues his proclamation calling for 125,000 volunteers, 1867—Spain declares war exists with the United States, 1867—The United States declares that war exists with Spain 1867—England proclaims neutrality and declares that war began April 21st, when Spain gave Minister Woodford his passport, 1868—The earthworks defending Matanzas are bombarded by the *New York, Puritan,* and *Cincinnati,* this being the first action of the war, 1870—The House passes the bill for a popular bond issue for $500,000,000, 1871—Commodore Dewey destroys the Spanish fleet at Manila, 1877—Ensign Worth Bagley and four sailors are killed in an attack by Spanish gunboats and shore batteries on the American blockading vessel at Cardenas, Cuba, 1883—Batteries at San Juan, Porto Rico, bombarded, 1884—Lieut. R. P. Hobson sinks the collier *Merrimac* in the mouth of the harbor of Santiago, 1889—The battleship *Oregon* from San Francisco arrives at Jupiter Inlet, 1900—Admiral Sampson bombards the outer defences of Santiago, 1909—The transport *Panther* lands a force of American marines near Guantanamo Harbor, Cuba, 1910—The American troops land at Daiquiri, Cuba, 1915—The Hawaiian annexation resolution is passed, 1930—Landing of troops near Santiago completed, 1936—General Young's Cavalry and the Rough Riders are attacked by a superior force of Spaniards near Sevilla, Cuba, but the enemy are driven from their position, 1940—Heights of El Caney and San Juan are captured, 1947—The Spanish fail in their attempt to retake San Juan, 1958—Admiral Cervera's fleet is destroyed, 1961—Santiago surrenders and the Americans take possession, 1990—Port of Nipe, Cuba, bombarded, 1993—General Miles and his troops land at Guanica, Porto Rico, 2001—City of Ponce, Porto Rico, surrenders, 2003—American troops advance and occupy Yauco, Porto Rico, 2004—Guayama, Porto Rico, captured, 2007—Coamo, Porto Rico, captured, 2009—The Spaniards on the Ladrone Islands capitulate to the United States cruiser *Charleston,* 2012—Admiral Dewey and General Merritt capture Manila, 2017—Hawaii formally admitted to the Union, 2019—Protocol of peace signed at Washington, 2028—Military commissions for Cuba and Porto Rico appointed, 2033—American Peace Commissioners to Paris appointed, 2033—Omaha Exposition, 2044—Work of the American Red Cross Society, 2047—Roman Catholic Sisterhoods in field and hospital, 2058—Théodore Roosevelt elected Governor of New York, 2080—Discovery of gold at Cape Nome, 2096.

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1899 General Lawton killed, 2076—Dewey created full admiral, 2088—Burial of the *Maine* victims at Arlington, 2094—Reciprocity convention with France, 2094—Reciprocity convention with Portugal, 2095—Resignation of General Alger, 2095—Elihu Root appointed Secretary of War, 2095—General Wood appointed governor-general of Cuba, 2096—Rush to the Cape Nome gold fields, 2097—The National Export Exposition at Philadelphia, 2098—Fostering trade relations, 2178—War in the Philippines, 2098—Aguinaldo's pretensions, 2100—Sympathy for the Filipinos, 2101—The Joint Commission, 2101—Outbreak of war, 2101—Capture of Caloocan, 2102—A vigorous policy, 2102—Lawton's brilliant campaign, 2102—New regiments, 2103—"Cleaning up" at Luzon, 2103—Wreck of the *Charleston,* 2103—Death of Major John A. Logan, 2104—Gen. S. B. M. Young appointed military governor, 2104—General order established, 2104—Waning strength of the rebellion, 2105—The enemy on the run, 2105—Gen Guy V. Henry, 2105—His exploits and death, 2106—Discovery of wireless telegraphy, 2107—The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, 2108.

1900 Partition of Samoa, 2093—The "open door" with China secured, 2107—The Nicaragua Canal project, 2107—Interpretation of treaties, 2109—The Hay-Pauncefote treaty, 2111—Repudiation of treaties, 2111—Duty of the United States, 2112—Violations of the Monroe Doctrine, 2112—The Davis amendment, 2113—The Presidential election, 2113—Epitome of the Republican platform, 2114—Epitome of the Democratic platform, 2114—Other Presidential tickets, 2115—The Galveston calamity, 2117—History of Galveston, 2117—Previous warning, 2118—Gathering of the storm, 2118—Its awful work, 2118—Bodies buried at sea, 2118—Appalling loss of life and property, 2119—The future of Galveston, 2120—War with China, 2121—Causes of Chinese hostilities to foreigners, 2121—The "Boxer" outbreak, 2121—Peril of the missionaries and their families at the legations in Peking, 2123—Vigorous measures of the different civilized nations for their rescue, 2123—Capture of the Taku forts, 2123—Storming of Tientsin, 2123—Taking of Peking and rescue of the legationers, 2123—Bravery of American officers and soldiers, 2123—Death of Col. Liscum, 2125—American policy in China, 2126—Punishment of the "Boxers," 2126.

1901 Death of Queen Victoria, 2126—The war in the Philippines, 2126—Proclamation of amnesty to Filipinos, 2127—Second inauguration of President McKinley, 2129—Death of Ex-President Harrison, 2133—Capture of Aguinaldo by Col. Funston, 2137—Civil government established in the Philippines, 2143—Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, 2137—Assassination of President McKinley, 2139—Massacre on Samar Island, 2148—State of war in the Philippines officially declared, 2160—Passage of the Hay-Pauncefote Canal Treaty, 2160.

1902 Horrifying calamity in the Island of Martinique, 2167—Withdrawal of

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American rule in Cuba, 2166—Proclamation of amnesty in the Philippines, 2163—Gen. Chaffee transferred from the command of the Philippines to that of the Department of the East, 2163—Question concerning the lands of the Friars in the Philippines, 2164—Strike of coal miners in Pennsylvania, 2170—Passage of the "Spooner Act" by Congress, 2179.

1903 Panama Canal Treaty between the United States and Colombia signed, 2179—Alaskian boundary question settled, 2196—President signed the bill creating the department of Commerce and Labor, 2199—Striking miners in Pennsylvania ordered to return to work pending the adjustment of their grievances, 2172—Dedication of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition buildings at St. Louis, 2186—Completion of the Pacific cable, 2177—Colombian Senate rejected the Panama Canal Treaty, 2181—Government cable completed between Seattle and Sitka, 2179—Peary's proposed "dash to the Pole," 2197—Alaskan boundary question settled, 2196—Republic of Panama proclaimed, 2182—Its recognition by the United States, 2182—Secretary Hay and Mr. Bunau-Varilla, Minister for Panama, signed the new Isthmian Canal Treaty, 2183—New Canal Treaty with the United States ratified at Panama, 2183—Nearly 600 lives lost in the burning of the Iroquois Theatre at Chicago, 2202.

1904 W. H. Taft became Secretary of War, 2207—Great fire in Baltimore, 2201—Death of Marcus A. Hanna, 2207—United States Senate ratified the Panama Canal Treaty, 2184—The Senate passed the bill for the government of Panama, 2184—Contract for the transfer of the Panama Canal property to the United States signed in Paris, 2184—Louisiana Purchase Exposition opened at St. Louis, 2186—Thirteen men killed near Cripple Creek by a dynamite explosion, 2177—More than one thousand lives lost by the burning of the *General Slocum,* 2203—Republican National Convention at Chicago nominated Roosevelt and Fairbanks, 2205—Democratic National Convention nominated Parker and Davis, 2208—The Republican ticket was successful by an overwhelming majority, 2212.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

[The Articles of Confederation were drawn up by a committee of gentlemen, who were appointed by Congress for this purpose, June 12, 1776, and finally adopted November 15, 1777. The committee were Messrs. Bartlett, Samuel Adams, Hopkins, Sherman, R. R. Livingston, Dickinson, M'Kean, Stone, Nelson, Howes. E. Rutledge, and Gwinnet.]

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION AND PERPETUAL UNION

Between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

ARTICLE I.

The style of this confederacy shall be, "THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA."

ARTICLE II.

Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled.

ARTICLE III.

The said States hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other, for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1.—The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different States in this union, the free inhabitants of each of these States—paupers, vagabonds, and fugitives from justice excepted—shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several States; and the people of each State shall have free ingress and egress to and from any other State, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce, subject to the same duties, impositions, and restrictions, as the inhabitants thereof respectively; provided, that such restrictions shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any State, to any other State, of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided also, that no imposition, duties, or restriction, shall be laid by any State on the property of the United States, or either of them.

SEC. 2.—If any person, guilty of, or charged with treason, felony, or other high misdemeanor, in any State, shall flee from justice, and be found in any of the United

States, he shall, upon the demand of the Governor or executive power of the State from which he fled, be delivered up and removed to the State having jurisdiction of his offence.

SEC. 3.—Full faith and credit shall be given, in each of these States, to the records, acts, and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other State.

ARTICLE V.

SECTION 1.—For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed in such manner as the legislature of each State shall direct, to meet in Congress on the first Monday in November in every year, with a power reserved to each State to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead, for the remainder of the year.

SEC. 2.—No State shall be represented in Congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emolument, of any kind.

SEC. 3. Each State shall maintain its own delegates in a meeting of the States, and while they act as members of the committee of these States.

SEC. 4.—In determining questions in the United States in Congress assembled, each State shall have one vote.

SEC. 5.—Freedom of speech and debate in Congress shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Congress, and the members of Congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments during the time of their going to and from, and attendance on Congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

ARTICLE VI.

SECTION 1.—No State, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from, or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance, or treaty with any king, prince, or State, nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state; nor shall the United States in Congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

SEC. 2.—No two or more States shall enter into any treaty, confederation, or alliance whatever, between them, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, specifying accurately the purposes for which the same is to be entered into, and how long it shall continue.

SEC. 3.—No State shall lay any imposts or duties which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties entered into by the United States in Congress assembled, with any king, prince, or State, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by Congress to the courts of France and Spain.

SEC. 4.—No vessels of war shall be kept up in time of peace by any State, except such number only as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in Congress assembled, for the defence of such State, or its trade; nor shall any body of

forces be kept up by any State, in time of peace, except such number only as, in the judgment of the United States in Congress assembled, shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such State; but every State shall always keep up a well-regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred, and shall provide and constantly have ready for use, in public stores, a due number of field-pieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition, and camp equipage.

SEC. 5.—No State shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be actually invaded by enemies, or shall have received certain advice of a resolution being formed by some nation of Indians to invade such State, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of delay till the United States in Congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any State grant commissions to any ships or vessels of war, nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in Congress assembled, and then only against the kingdom or State, and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be infested by pirates, in which case vessels of war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in Congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

ARTICLE VII.

When land forces are raised by any State for the common defence, all officers of or under the rank of colonel, shall be appointed by the legislature of each State respectively by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such State shall direct, and all vacancies shall be filled up by the State which first made the appointment.

ARTICLE VIII.

All charges of war, and all other expenses that shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in Congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several States, in proportion to the value of all land within each State, granted to or surveyed for any person, as such land and the buildings and improvements thereon shall be estimated, according to such mode as the United States in Congress assembled shall, from time to time, direct and appoint. The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the several States within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled.

ARTICLE IX.

SECTION 1.—The United States in Congress assembled shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth article, of sending and receiving ambassadors; entering into treaties and alliances, provided that no treaty of commerce shall be made, whereby the legislative power of the respective States shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners, as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatsoever; of establishing rules for deciding in all cases what captures on land or water shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated; of granting letters of marque and

reprisal in times of peace; appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas; and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of capture; provided, that no member of Congress shall be appointed a judge of any of the said courts.

SEC. 2.—The United States in Congress assembled shall also be the last resort on appeal in all disputes and differences now subsisting, or that hereafter may arise between two or more States concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following: Whenever the legislative or executive authority or lawful agent of any State in controversy with another, shall present a petition to Congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given by order of Congress to the legislative or executive authority of the other State in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance of the parties by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint, by joint consent, commissioners or judges to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question; but if they can not agree, Congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen; and from that number not less than seven, nor more than nine names, as Congress shall direct, shall, in the presence of Congress, be drawn out by lot; and the persons whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners or judges to hear and finally determine the controversy, so always as a major part of the judges, who shall hear the cause, shall agree in the determination: and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons which Congress shall judge sufficient, or being present, shall refuse to strike, the Congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each State, and the secretary of Congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing; and the judgment and sentence of the court, to be appointed in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence, or judgment, which shall in like manner be final and decisive; the judgment or sentence and other proceedings being in either case transmitted to Congress, and lodged among the acts of Congress, for the security of the parties concerned: provided, that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath, to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the State where the cause shall be tried, "well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favor, affection, or hope of reward." Provided, also, that no State shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

SEC. 3.—All controversies concerning the private right of soil claimed under different grants of two or more States, whose jurisdiction, as they may respect such lands, and the States which passed such grants are adjusted, the said grants or either of them being at the same time claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement of jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the Congress of the United States, be finally determined, as near as may be, in the same manner as is before prescribed for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different States.

SEC. 4.—The United States in Congress assembled shall also have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective States; fixing the standard of weights and

measures throughout the United States; regulating the trade, and managing all affairs with the Indians, not members of any of the States; provided, that the legislative right of any State, within its own limits, be not infringed or violated; establishing and regulating post offices from one State to another throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same, as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office; appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States, excepting regimental officers; appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever in the service of the United States; making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

SEC. 5.—The United States in Congress assembled shall have authority to appoint a committee to sit in the recess of Congress, to be denominated, "*A Committee of the States,*" and to consist of one delegate from each State; and to appoint such other committees and civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States under their direction; to appoint one of their number to preside; provided, that no person be allowed to serve in the office of president more than one year in any term of three years; to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses; to borrow money or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half-year to the respective States an account of the sums of money so borrowed or emitted; to build and equip a navy; to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each State for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in such State, which requisition shall be binding; and thereupon the legislature of each State shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, clothe, arm, and equip them, in a soldier-like manner, at the expense of the United States; and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled; but if the United States in Congress assembled shall, on consideration of circumstances, judge proper that any State should not raise men, or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other State should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed, and equipped, in the same manner as the quota of such State, unless the legislature of such State shall judge that such extra number can not be safely spared out of the same, in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm, and equip, as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared, and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled.

SEC. 6.—The United States in Congress assembled shall never engage in a war, nor grant letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into any treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States, or any of them, nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels of war to be built or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be raised, nor appoint a commander-in-chief of the army or navy, unless nine States assent to the same; nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States in Congress assembled.

SEC. 7.—The Congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of

adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months, and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations, as in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each State, on any question, shall be entered on the journal, when it is desired by any delegate; and the delegates of a State, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal, except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the legislatures of the several States.

ARTICLE X.

The Committee of the States, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of Congress, such of the powers of Congress as the United States, in Congress assembled, by the consent of nine States, shall, from time to time, think expedient to vest them with; provided, that no power be delegated to the said committee, for the exercise of which, by the Articles of Confederation, the voice of nine States, in the Congress of the United States assembled, is requisite.

ARTICLE XI.

Canada, acceding to this Confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into and entitled to all the advantages of this Union; but no other colony shall be admitted into the same, unless such admission be agreed to by nine States.

ARTICLE XII.

All bills of credit emitted, moneys borrowed, and debts contracted by or under the authority of Congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present Confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for payment and satisfaction whereof the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

ARTICLE XIII.

Every State shall abide by the determination of the United States in Congress assembled, in all questions which by this Confederation are submitted to them. And the articles of this Confederation shall be inviolably observed by every State, and the union shall be perpetual; nor shall any alteration at any time hereafter be made in any of them; unless such alteration be agreed to in a Congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every State.

And whereas, it hath pleased the great Governor of the world to incline the hearts of the legislatures we respectively represent in Congress to approve of, and to authorize us to ratify the said Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union, Know ye, that we, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do by these presents, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify and confirm each and every of the said Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union, and all and singular the matters and things therein contained. And we do further solemnly plight and engage the faith of our respective constituents, that they shall abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled, in all questions which by the said Confed-

eration are submitted to them; and that the articles thereof shall be inviolably observed by the States we respectively represent, and that the union shall be perpetual. In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands in Congress.

Done at Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, the 9th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1778, and in the third year of the Independence of America.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Josiah Bartlett, John Wentworth, Jr.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.—John Hancock, Samuel Adams, Elbridge Gerry, Francis Dana, James Lovel, Samuel Holton.

RHODE ISLAND, ETC.—William Ellery, Henry Marchant, John Collins.

CONNECTICUT.—Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, Oliver Wolcott, Titus Hosmer, Andrew Adams.

NEW YORK.—James Duane, Francis Lewis, William Duer, Gouverneur Morris.

NEW JERSEY.—John Witherspoon, Nath. Scudder.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Robert Morris, Daniel Roberdeau, Jona Bayard Smith, William Clingan, Joseph Reed.

DELAWARE.—Thomas M'Kean, John Dickinson, Nicholas Van Dyke.

MARYLAND.—John Hanson, Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.—Richard Henry Lee, John Banister, Thomas Adams, John Harvie, Francis Lightfoot Lee.

NORTH CAROLINA.—John Penn, Cons. Harnett, John Williams.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Henry Laurens, Wm. Henry Drayton, John Matthews Richard Hutson, Thomas Heyward, Jr.

GEORGIA.—John Walton, Edward Telfair, Edward Langworthy.

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

[If the Emancipation Proclamation is to be regarded as *the cause* of the freedom of the African race in the United States, then indeed must it be considered as among the most important documents known in history: perhaps the most important of all. The truer view of the case, however, seems to be this: The inexorable Logic of Events was rapidly bringing about the emancipation of the slaves. The National Government fell under a stringent necessity to strike a blow at the labor system of the Southern States. With every struggle of the war the sentiment of abolition at the North rose higher and higher. The President himself and the chief supporters of his administration had for years made no concealment of their desire that all men everywhere should be free. *The occasion* was at hand. Mr. Lincoln seized and generalized the facts, embodied them in his own words, and became for all time the oracle and interpreter of *National Necessity*.—THE AUTHOR.]

WHEREAS, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a Proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing among other things the following, to wit:

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State, or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforth and forever free, and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom."

"That the executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States, and the fact that any State or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State and the people thereof are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore, I, ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaim for the full period of one hundred days from the day the first above

mentioned, order and designate, as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

ARKANSAS, TEXAS, LOUISIANA (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), MISSISSIPPI, ALABAMA, FLORIDA, GEORGIA, SOUTH CAROLINA, NORTH CAROLINIA, and VIRGINIA (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this Proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be free; and that the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence, and I recommend to them that in all cases, when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known that such persons of suitable condition will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

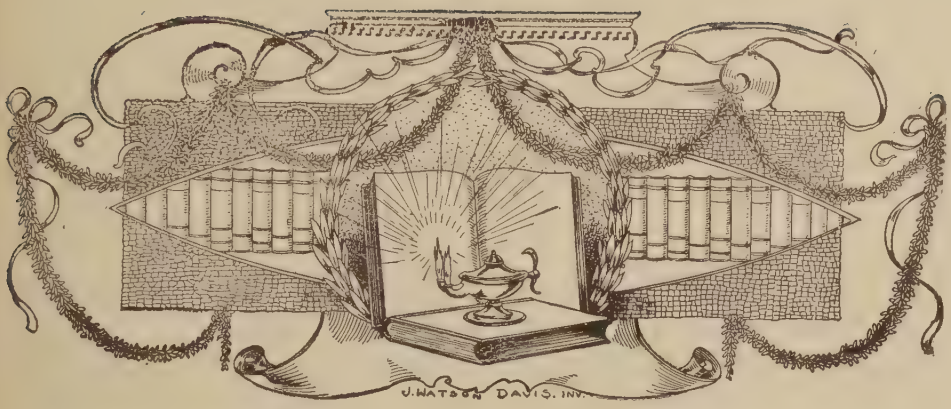
And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

[L. S.] *Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.*

By the President: ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD,
Secretary of State.



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